

**GRAMMAR INSTRUCTION IN THE DISCRETE SKILLS  
AND  
THE INTEGRATED SKILLS PROGRAMS  
AT OSMANGAZI UNIVERSITY**

**A THESIS PRESENTED BY**

**NURCAN PARLAKYILDIZ**

**TO THE INSTITUTE OF ECONOMICS AND SOCIAL SCIENCES  
IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS  
FOR THE DEGREE OF MASTER OF ARTS  
IN TEACHING ENGLISH AS A FOREIGN LANGUAGE**

**BILKENT UNIVERSITY  
DECEMBER 1997**

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## ABSTRACT

Title: Grammar Instruction in the Discrete Skills and Integrated Skills Programs at Osmangazi University

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The concern of this thesis was to identify the differences and similarities in grammar instruction in a discrete skills program (DSP) in which grammar is taught separately and an integrated skills program (ISP) in which grammar is taught an integrated manner. This comparative study was conducted at the Department of Basic English that provides a one year intensive English program at Osmangazi University Eskisehir, Turkey. The English program in 1996-1997 switched from being a DSP to an ISP. The subjects were 13 English instructors, ten of whom taught grammar in both the DSP and ISP, and three instructors only in the ISP. Data were collected through the analysis of the curriculum documents and textbook activities, administration of questionnaires observation of classroom presentations. These data were analyzed and compared in terms of means percentages.

The results of the study revealed that grammar instruction has both differences and similarities in curriculum design, instructional materials and textbook activities, and grammar teaching procedures in terms of the presentation, practice, correction and evaluation stages in the DSP and ISP.

The analysis of the curriculum documents revealed that grammar is regarded as crucial in the DSP while communicative skills are essential in addition to structural proficiency in formal statements of objectives in the ISP. These objectives are realized through a grammatical/structural syllabus in the DSP and a topical syllabus in the ISP. Grammar testing is carried out through discrete point examinations in both the DSP and ISP. Various kinds of drills and pattern-practice exercises are used in the DSP while only multiple-choice questions are used in the ISP.

The textbook analysis showed that the DSP and ISP textbooks are different in material design format. The DSP textbook is designed in a linear shape while the ISP textbook is designed in a topical, linear and cyclic formats together.

The analysis of textbook activities revealed that mechanical drills are preferred by the DSP while communicative drills are mostly used in the ISP in addition to mechanical drills. Isolated sentences are used in the DSP while contextualized exercises are used in the ISP for grammar practice.

The analysis of the procedure of grammar teaching revealed both differences and similarities. In the presentation stage, the native language was favored by the DSP instructors and the target language was preferred by the ISP instructors. The DSP instructors taught grammar deductively while the ISP instructors taught grammar

inductively. Another difference found in instructional materials was that textbooks were used in the DSP, but various kinds of materials were used in the ISP in the presentation and practice stages. Both DSP and ISP instructors revised the known grammatical rules while explaining a new teaching point. The results of the study also revealed that isolated sentences are used in the DSP whereas contextualization and authenticity of the tasks were the two characteristics of the practice stage in the ISP. Errors in grammar were usually corrected by the DSP instructors immediately and directly whereas the ISP instructors usually preferred immediate and indirect correction in class. ‘Teacher correction’ is mainly used in both DSP and ISP. In the ISP, peer and self correction were also encouraged by the instructors. Mid-terms were the major evaluation techniques used as formal testing to get feedback in the DSP and ISP. Another similarity was that grammar was evaluated through discrete point examinations in both programs.

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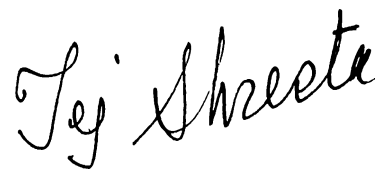
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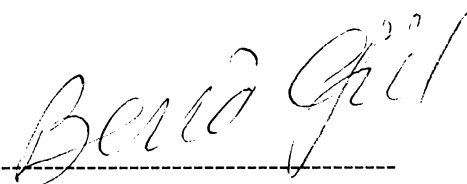
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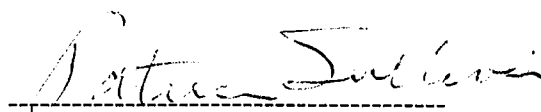
We certify that we have read this thesis and that in our combined opinion it is fully adequate, in scope and in quality, as a thesis for the degree of Master of Arts.



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To  
NATURE'S PRETTY SOUL  
which inspires  
never-ending love

## TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES .....	xi
LIST OF FIGURES .....	xiii
 CHAPTER 1    INTRODUCTION	
General Introduction to the Study	1
Background to the Study.....	3
Statement of the Problem .....	6
Purpose of the Study .....	6
Significance of the Study.....	7
Research Questions .....	7
 CHAPTER 2    REVIEW OF LITERATURE	
Curriculum Design for Grammar Instruction	9
Different Models for Language Teaching Program Design.	9
Historical Overview of Grammar Instructional Methods....	11
Review of Method Comparison Studies.....	15
Key Theoretical Assumptions about the DSP.....	21
Models for Instruction based on the DSP.....	21
Key Theoretical Assumptions about the ISP.....	23
Models for Instruction based on the ISP.....	27
Objectives in Syllabus Statements.....	29
Different Types of Syllabuses used in the DSP and ISP.....	30
Instructional Materials and Activities in Grammar Instruction	32
Methods in Analysis of Language Learning Materials.....	32
Stages of Evaluation.....	34
Three Dimensions of Material Organization.....	36
General Formats of Material Design.....	39
Process-Oriented or Product-Oriented Materials.....	40
Grammar Books versus Coursebooks.....	42
Activity Types in the DSP and ISP.....	46
Grammar Instruction Procedure	51
General Organization Models of Grammar Instruction.....	52
Presentation of Rules.....	53
Inductive versus Deductive Teaching.....	54
Use of Native or Target Language in Presentation of	56
Rules.....	
Practice of Rules.....	57
Contextualization of Grammatical Rules.....	57
Authenticity of Texts and Tasks.....	58
Sequencing of Rules in the Presentation and Practice	
Stages.....	59
Error Correction.....	60
Evaluation of Rules.....	62
Conclusion.....	63

CHAPTER 3	METHODOLOGY	
	Introduction .....	64
	Subjects .....	65
	Materials .....	65
	Curriculum Documents .....	65
	Textbook and Activities.....	66
	Questionnaires.....	66
	Procedure .....	68
	Data Analysis .....	68
CHAPTER 4	ANALYSIS OF DATA	
	Introduction .....	70
	Analysis of Curriculum Documents.....	70
	Analysis of Objectives.....	71
	Syllabus Analysis.....	72
	Analysis of Written Exams.....	77
	Analysis of Instructional Materials.....	80
	Textbook Analysis.....	80
	Activity Analysis.....	82
	Analysis and Interpretation of Questionnaire Results about the Procedure.....	97
	Grammar Instruction in the DSP and ISP	99
	Presentation Stage .....	99
	Practice Stage .....	102
	Correction Stage .....	105
	Evaluation Stage .....	107
CHAPTER 5	CONCLUSION	
	Introduction.....	110
	Overview of the Study.....	110
	Discussion of Findings.....	111
	Pedagogical Implications.....	117
	Limitations of the Study.....	117
	Suggestions for Further Studies.....	118
REFERENCES.....		119
APPENDICES.....		
	Appendix A: The Discrete and Integrated Skills Questionnaire.....	124
	Appendix B: DSP Syllabus.....	131
	Appendix C: ISP Syllabus.....	132
	Appendix D: The Linear Format.....	133
	Appendix E: The Modular Format.....	134
	Appendix F: The Cyclical Format.....	135
	Appendix G: The Matrix Format.....	136
	Appendix H: The Story-Line Format.....	137

<u>TABLE</u>	<u>LIST OF TABLES</u>	<u>PAGE</u>
1	Brown's Language Teaching Design.....	11
2	American Studies Comparing Foreign Language Teaching....	16
3	Degree of Superiority Shown in Comparative Method Studies	17
4	GUME project Research Comparing Teaching Methods.....	18
5	A Typical Structural Syllabus	22
6	Types of Syllabuses.....	31
7	Exercise Chain Example.....	49
8	The Real Life Skills Integration.....	50
9	Types and Number of Questions	67
10	Comparison of the DSP and ISP Objectives in terms of Grammar.....	72
11	The DSP Syllabuses	73
12	The ISP Syllabuses	74
13	Comparison of the DSP and ISP Syllabuses in terms of Grammar.....	75
14	Comparison of the DSP and ISP Written Exams in terms of Grammar.....	79
15	The DSP Textbook Design.....	81
16	The ISP Textbook Design.....	81
17	Comparison of the DSP and ISP Textbook Activities in terms of Grammar (1).....	84
18	Comparison of the DSP and ISP Textbook Activities in terms of Grammar (2).....	85
19	Comparison of the DSP and ISP Textbook Activities in terms of Grammar (3).....	86
20	Comparison of the DSP and ISP Textbook Activities in terms of Grammar (4).....	88
21	Comparison of the DSP and ISP Textbook Activities in terms of Grammar (5).....	89
22	Comparison of the DSP and ISP Textbook Activities in terms of Grammar (6).....	91
23	Comparison of the DSP and ISP Textbook Activities in terms of Grammar (7).....	92
24	Comparison of the DSP and ISP Textbook Activities in terms of Grammar (8).....	93
25	Comparison of the DSP and ISP Textbook Activities in terms of Grammar (9).....	95
26	Comparison of the DSP and ISP Textbook Activities in terms of Grammar (10).....	96
27	Distribution of Mechanical and Communicative Activities in the DSP and ISP.....	97
28	Language Teaching Experience of Instructors	99

29	Instructor Responses in Relation to Grammar Presentation in the DSP and ISP.....	100
30	Instructor Responses in Relation to Grammar Practice in the DSP and ISP.....	103
31	Instructor Responses in Relation to Grammar Correction in the DSP and ISP.....	106
32	Instructor Responses in Relation to Grammar Evaluation in the DSP and ISP.....	108

<u>FIGURE</u>		<u>PAGE</u>
	LIST OF FIGURES	
1	Anthony's Language Teaching Design.....	10
2	Richards and Rodgers' Language Teaching Design.....	10
3	Harmer's Views.....	33
4	Hutchinson's Views.....	35

## CHAPTER 1 INTRODUCTION

This section presents the general introduction and background to the study and states the problem, purpose of the study, significance of the study and research questions.

### General Introduction to the Study

For many years grammar instruction has been an important concern for researchers and language teachers. Widdowson (1979) argues that language cannot be taught without its grammar. Grammar instruction models in different language teaching programs have gained importance with the rediscovery of grammar in the 1980s (Bygate, Tonkyn & Williams, 1994; Bygate, Tonkyn & Williams, 1994).

Different language program designs require different teaching models where different instructional materials and language learning activities are employed.

Some educationalists argue that grammar should be taught integratively with other language skills (Ellis, 1993) while others (Johnson, 1973) assert that grammar should have a separate place in the syllabus. The titles of many books stress integration such as 'Interlink 1: a course in integrating skills in English' (Eckstut & Miller, 1986 cited in Honeyfield, 1988). The titles and contents of some textbooks written in the last 10 years reflect a growing interest in skills integration; however, questions such as 'What does integration or segregation involve?' and 'Why do we need integration or segregation of language skills?' continue to be debated by researchers and language teachers (Honeyfield, 1988).



Over the last ten years, the discrete view, where a second or foreign language is taught in discrete point units, changed to the holistic view, where communicative goals are restated, basic language skills are re-emphasized and language is seen as a whole. Language learning activities, instructional materials, the role of the teachers and students and examinations as evaluation methods have been affected by these changes.

In particular, there has been considerable discussion concerning discrete skill versus integrated skill approaches to second language teaching (Enright & McCloskey, 1988), given the fact that gaining a new language involves developing all language abilities, such as listening, speaking, reading, writing and grammar in several degrees and combinations (Oxford, 1990). Grittner (1982) argues that the attempt to simplify language learning into separate parts like listening, reading or a sequence of skills beginning with listening and speaking, to be followed by reading and writing is wrong. In contrast, Manning (1990) argues that all language skills may not given equal importance and some skills can be ignored or not paid attention to completely.

The discussion concerning the teaching of discrete skill versus integrated skill approaches has important implications for language teaching programs. The important issues in surveying a language teaching program seem to be: first, “whether the materials are in harmony with the syllabus in terms of procedures, techniques and presentation of items and objectives”, second, “whether the materials provide alternatives for teachers and learners in terms of learner-tasks”, third, “whether the learning styles, presentation techniques and expected outcomes

are compatible with the language teaching design”, fourth, “whether the language skills are presented separately or well integrated” and “whether the text types included in the materials are authentic”, fifth, “whether the language learning activities are contextualized”, and sixth, “whether materials suggest certain roles for teachers and learners in error correction” (Dubin & Olshtain, 1986, p. 27). These issues were taken into consideration in surveying the possible differences and similarities in the DSP and ISP.

### Background to the Study

This section describes the current situation in the Department of Basic English at Osmangazi University with respect to grammar instruction in the discrete skills program (DSP) and integrated skills program (ISP).

This study was motivated by the researcher’s experiences as a teacher at the Department of Basic English in Osmangazi University. Osmangazi is a new university which was established in 1993. Despite its relative newness, the Department of Basic English has already used two seemingly dramatically different approaches to grammar instruction- the discrete skills program (DSP) and the integrated skills program (ISP).

The DSP was used from 1993-1996. The ISP was used for only the 1996-1997 academic year after a formal survey for program development. The survey was motivated by the staff opinions expressed in group meetings and the results of informal student surveys investigating the reactions to the courses in the classes and in the teacher and program evaluation questionnaires. The first complaint was that

students got bored when the focus of instruction was only writing, reading or grammar throughout two block-classes a day. The second complaint revealed that the textbooks were different for each skill and the topics and grammatical foci were too different in each program. For example, they were studying obligations in the writing class while the simple present tense was covered in the grammar class. Thus, there seemed to be inconsistencies in language teaching. The third complaint was about examination weeks. Since examinations were conducted separately throughout the week, they had reading, listening, grammar, writing and speaking examinations. As a result, the students found the exam week long and tiring. In fact, many students were not able to continue classes the week following the exam week because they felt tired. The last major issue was that especially for unsuccessful students or for those who did not like one of the classes, such as writing there was no other focus skill to motivate them. Since the majority of the staff and the administrator agreed with the students as to what was reported in staff meetings, it was decided to conduct a 'program development' survey.

This survey was conducted by two instructors working in the Program Development Unit with the aim of finding out the different ways that grammar instruction was implemented in the DSP and ISP in terms of the overall curriculum, existing instructional materials, teaching methods, and evaluation techniques. They consulted six universities, Hacettepe, METU, Bogazici, Bilkent, Anatolian and Karadeniz Technical Universities, all of which are English medium universities.

The findings of the program development survey revealed that there is no common agreement on grammar instruction in terms of the integration or

segregation of language skills in syllabuses at the Departments of Basic English in these universities. While grammar instruction takes place independently in some syllabuses, for example in the Anatolian and Karadeniz Technical Universities, it is taught in an integrated manner in other in other universities, such as METU, Bogazici, Bilkent and Hacettepe Universities in Turkiye. Moreover, the findings showed that the traditional organization of instruction by discrete skills is giving way to the so-called integrated skills approach. For instance, at Bogazici University language program was changed from the DSP to ISP.

A general picture of the DSP and ISP in these six universities was provided through the Program Development survey. According to the survey, the DSP and ISP differed in the following ways:

1. In the DSP, each language skill has an independent syllabus while in the ISP, five language skills (listening, speaking, reading, writing and grammar) are integrated into one syllabus.
2. In the DSP, each language skill has an independent textbook while in the ISP, all language skills are included in the same textbook series.
3. In the DSP, each language skill is evaluated separately in examinations while in the ISP language skills are evaluated in the same exam sheet through separate sections, such as the grammar section.
4. In the DSP, there is a focus skill in each course, such as writing in the ‘writing’ course while in the ISP, one or more skills can be focused on in the same lesson.

The use of these two different approaches, both within the Department of Osmangazi University and within different universities throughout Türkiye, helped to motivate this study.

### Statement of the Problem

As stated earlier, although there has been considerable discussion in recent years about discrete skills versus integrated skills approaches to second language teaching, and there has been no research on the differences and similarities in the two programs in terms of grammar instruction in Turkey.

The teacher and material evaluation questionnaires administered to the students at Osmangazi University in 1995-1996 indicated that students became bored and were unsuccessful at classes which they did not like. As a result of the segregation of language skills, different language units and structures are emphasized at the same time which was found confusing by the students. To investigate this issue, it is necessary that the syllabus, objectives, textbooks, other instructional materials and evaluation techniques be examined.

### Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study is to find the differences and similarities in grammar instruction within the DSP, in which the language skills are taught separately, and the ISP, in which the language skills are integrated with each other, at the department of Basic English of Osmangazi University.

### Significance of the Study

Recently, there has been an enthusiasm for integrative as opposed to discrete skill approaches to teaching a foreign language. This enthusiasm has not been accompanied by evidence showing the superiority of one approach over the other. Hence, in many cases, the differences between the two approaches are not clear. Before any effectiveness data can be gathered, a clear understanding of the differences in design and delivery of the two program types needs to be developed.

Identifying the differences and similarities in the DSP and ISP is a necessary step in suggesting one program type or another to the administrators, the instructors and the students at the Department of Basic English in Osmangazi University, Eskisehir. It may also help other universities which are faced with such programmatic changes.

### Research Questions

This comparative study was carried out with reference to curriculum documents, textbook activities and instructors' opinions. The concern of this thesis was to find the answer to the following questions:

1. What are the differences and similarities between the DSP and ISP with respect to grammar instruction in terms of the presentation, practice, correction and evaluation stages.
2. What are the differences and similarities between the DSP and ISP with respect to curriculum documents?
3. What are the differences and similarities between the DSP and ISP with respect

to textbook designs and language learning activities?

In the light of these research questions, the topics related to program design, instruction and materials in terms of grammar will be reviewed in the following chapter.

## CHAPTER 2 REVIEW OF LITERATURE

This comparative study seeks to examine the similarities and differences in grammar instruction in the DSP and ISP at the Department of Basic English in Osmangazi University. In this chapter, a review of literature with respect to curriculum design, instructional materials and procedure in terms of grammar instruction will be presented.

### Curriculum Design for Grammar Instruction

This section presents different models for language teaching program design, historical overview of grammar instructional methods, a review of method comparison studies, key theoretical assumptions about the discrete skills program (DSP) and integrated skills program (ISP), models for instruction based on the DSP and ISP, objectives in syllabus statements and different types of syllabuses used in the DSP and ISP.

#### Different Models for Language Teaching Program Design

Anthony, Rodgers (Richards & Rodgers, 1986) and Brown (1995) suggest three different models for the design of language teaching . According to Anthony's (Richards & Rodgers, 1986) model, "approach" is a correlative assumption dealing with the nature of language teaching and learning, "method" is an overall plan that directs the syllabus for the orderly presentation of language material and "technique" is implementational as seen in Figure 1 (p. 16).



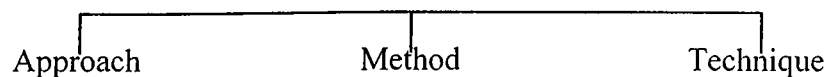


Figure 1. Anthony's language teaching design (Richards & Rodgers, 1986, p. 15)

In Rodgers' (Richards & Rodgers, 1986) model, “approach” includes a theory of language and a theory of language learning; “design” includes objectives, syllabus model, learning and teaching activities, the roles of teachers, learners and instructional materials; and “procedure” specifies classroom techniques and practices. Approach, design and procedure are all situated under method as is shown in Figure 2.

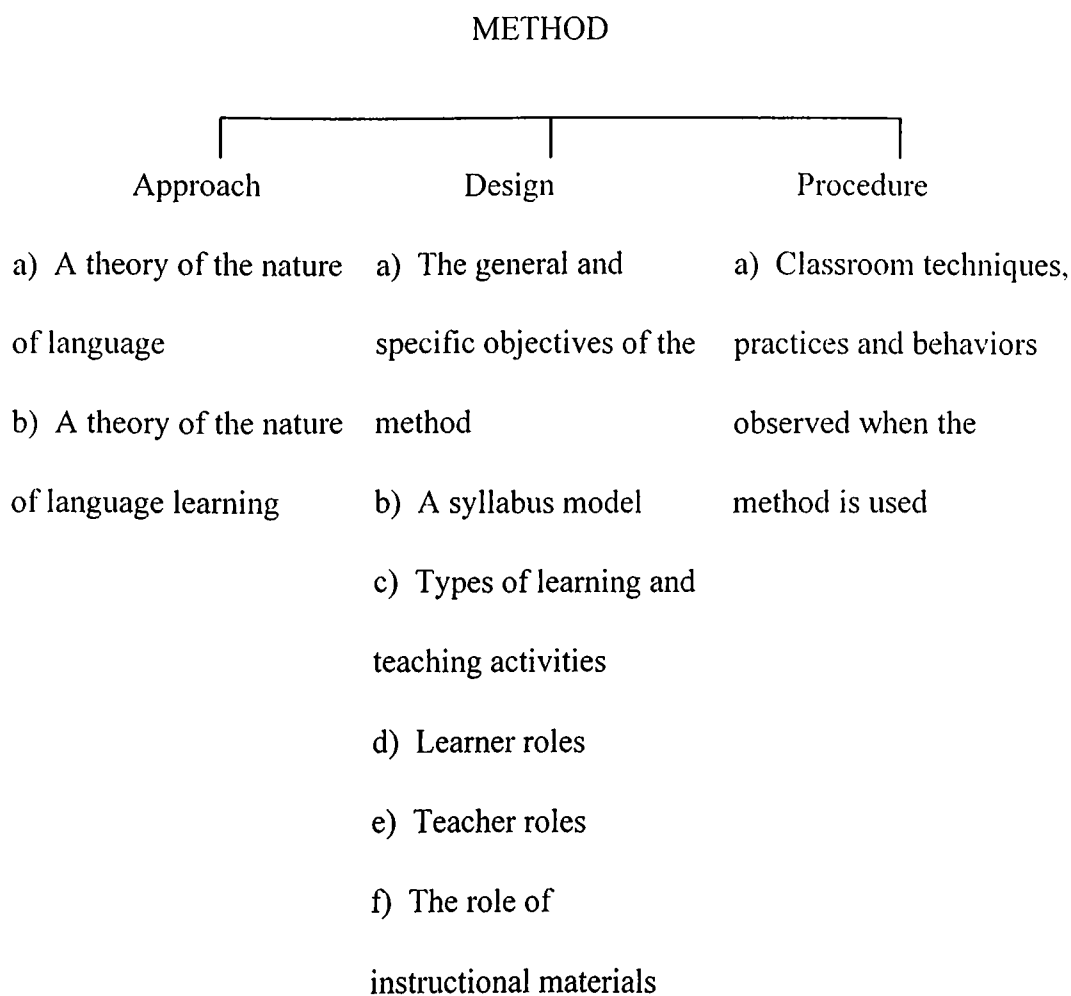


Figure 2. Richards and Rodgers' language teaching design (1986, p. 28)

In addition to these models, Brown (1995) suggests another model in which approaches specify how the needs of the students are viewed or defined, syllabuses determine how the materials and teaching are organized, techniques identify how the language is presented to the students while exercises identify how the language is practiced. Table 1 shows Brown's language teaching design.

Table 1

Brown's Language Teaching Design (Brown, 1995, p. 5)

Categories	Definitions
Approaches	Ways of Defining What and How the Students Need to Learn
Syllabuses	Ways of Organizing the Course and Materials
Techniques	Ways of Presenting the Materials and Teaching
Exercises	Ways of Practicing What Has Been Presented

Rodgers' (1986) design with regard to the general and specific objectives, syllabus models, types of learning and teaching activities, instructional materials and procedure that focuses the presentation, practice and feedback phases of teaching motivated the research questions that will be examined in the data analysis chapter of this research study.

Historical Overview of Grammar Instructional Methods\

Throughout centuries, the study of a language has meant primarily the study of its grammar. This perspective continues today. However, the term grammar is used and defined in different ways by different people. While Pence and Emery (1963) define grammar as a central part of language which relates to sound (phonology) and meaning (semantics), Downen (1985) defines it as the study of language that deals with the forms and structures of words (morphology) and

sentences (syntax). In the Structure of American English (Ozen, 1985), grammar is further defined as " the branch of linguistics which deals with the organization of morphemic units into meaningful combinations larger than words" (p. 85).

As Ward (1933) argues:

definitions in grammar are provisional, are mere statements of what is typical and usual; they are not, they cannot be, all-inclusive containers of the full truth about the parts of speech. A definition is only a convenience, exceptions and anomalies will crop out later...A definition is not an eternal truth. It is a preliminary and partial statement of what is characteristic.

(p. 145)

This quote indicates that there is no a common definition of grammar. It is not surprising that different approaches were developed for grammar instruction in different language teaching designs.

In the supremacy period of grammar, conscious control of grammar was held necessary for foreign language mastery by the Grammar-Translation Method. Translation and grammar activities were the two essences of language learning. Grammar was taught deductively and exercises were designed to provide practice on the grammar (Richards & Rodgers, 1986).

The successors to this method in the first half of the twentieth century refused grammatical knowledge as a focus; however, they saw their task as the transmission of the grammatical system. Brooks (cited in Bygate, Tonkyn & Williams, 1994),

writing within the American Audiolingual tradition argued for "control of the structures of sound, form and order in the new language" (p. 9). In the Audio-Lingual method, pattern drills are not taught with explanations as Palmer (cited in Richards & Rodgers, 1986) thinks explanations of the rules may be a waste of time and are given if necessary. According to Diller (1978) new structures are presented with the dialogues since the most important consideration of the Audio-Lingual Approach is that structures are better learned and mastered in context rather than the study of isolated grammatical structures. Lado (cited in Krashen, 1982) notes that audio-lingual pattern drills focus the students' attention away from the new structure to make the pattern automatic. Thus, the rules are not given deductively, but induced from examples (Freeman, 1986; Celce-Murcia, 1991).

Although a 1971 British guide to teachers of EFL had no separate section on grammar; grammar has a key position almost in all the chapters of the guide (Wilson & Wilson, 1971). The Chomskyan revolution in linguistics kept grammar at the center of linguistic interest, but it may be said to have created a climate in which a revival of mentalist or cognitive approaches to language pedagogy was easier. The name of one of these approaches, the Cognitive Code method, reflects continuing concern with the language system and it is significant that Carroll (cited in Bygate, Tonkyn & Williams, 1994) saw the Cognitive Code method as a kind of updated grammar-translation approach. In the Cognitive Code method, the assumption that "competence precedes performance" (Krashen, 1982, p. 32) indicates that "once the student has a proper degree of cognitive control over the structures of a language, facility will develop automatically with the use of language in meaningful situations"

(Carroll, 1966; Bygate, Tonkyn & Williams, p. 35). After the rule is presented, exercises help the student practice the rule consciously and are followed by communicative activities. On the other hand, the Direct method emphasizes inductive teaching as Prator (1979) points out: “the rule generalization comes only after experience” (p. 25). The teacher asks questions that are hopefully interesting enough to provide an example of the target structure since the goal of the lesson is grammar teaching.

The Language for Specific Purposes movement which began in 1969 under a strong structural influence, seeking to answer the question: “What selection from the grammar will be of most use to a scientist” turned to the functional /notional approach which asks: “What types of communicative event will our students engage in?” (Bygate, Tonky & Williams, 1994, p. 5). In addition, sociolinguistic and psycholinguistic awareness played an important role in the decline of the grammar in foreign language course design and methodology. Form-focused instruction was marginalized by (1) Chomsky's (Bygate, Tonkyn & Williams, 1994) conception of the language learning through a language acquisition device (LAD), (2) the order of children's acquisitional regularities which are similar to those revealed by the L1 researchers of morphological features, morpheme acquisition studies (Dulay & Burt, 1973, 1974; Bygate, Tonkyn & Williams, 1994) and, (3) Krashen's (1982) hypothesis of second language acquisition which proposes a move away from teaching grammar deductively marginalised the role of form-focused instruction. By the early 1980s, in mother tongue and in foreign language teaching, grammar had lost its central position. For instance, in the natural approach, the focus of the class is not on the

presentation of grammar, but discussion of personal topics. In the late 1970s, the notion of communicative competence, in which grammar was “one of several criteria set up for the assessment of effective speaking and writing” (Bygate, Tonky & Williams, 1994, p. 4) and communicative success did not necessarily depend on accurate grammar, tended to play down the value of grammar.

Some educationalists such as Edwards and Mercer (cited in Bygate, Tonky & Williams, 1994) argued in favor of deductive teaching of concepts and against excessive use of discovery learning since there was an apparent decline in standards of written English among university graduates. In the 1970s and 1980s many English language coursebooks appeared in which lesson headings and objectives were stated in functional terms with grammar points in language study sections at the end of the lesson or unit. With some innovative methods such as Total Physical Response in which several rules are contextualized in commands and Suggestopedia in which the necessary grammar is presented in a traditional way, the rediscovery of grammar has started (Bygate, Tonky & Williams, 1994).

### Review of Method Comparison Studies

The variety of language teaching methods have prompted numerous comparative studies. These studies have compared the audiolingual approach with either Grammar Translation (GT) or Cognitive Code (CC). Table 2 summarizes several American comparison studies related to foreign language teaching in the United States.

Table 2

American Studies Comparing Foreign Language Teaching Methods (Krashen, 1982, p. 148)

Study	Methods	TL	n	Tests:	Speaking	LC	Reading	Write	Attitude toward method
Scherer & Wertheimer	GT, AL	German	130, 150	Year 1: Year 2:	AL nd	AL AL	GT nd	GT GT	AL AL
Chastain & Woerdehoff <sup>1</sup>	CC, AL	Spanish	51, 48 35, 31	Year 1: Year 2:	AL AL	nd nd	CC nd	CC nd	
Mueller	CC, AL	French			not given	CC	CC	CC	CC (fewer dropouts)

AL = audio-lingual

GT = grammar-translation

CC = cognitive-code

nd = no difference

<sup>1</sup> Includes both Chastain & Woerdehoff (1968) and Chastain (1970).

Scherer and Wertheimer's (cited in Krashen 1982) studies showed no significant differences between the Audio-Lingual (AL) and Grammar Translation (GT) methods. It was concluded that students tend to do well in those areas that are emphasized in the teaching method.

Chastain and Woerdehoff (cited in Krashen, 1982) and Chastain (cited in Krashen, 1982) found similar results after comparing GT and CC, but Chastain (cited in Krashen, 1982) also stated males tended to do better with AL, while females did better in CC sections. Mueller (cited in Krashen, 1982) limited his study to one year and the results showed that those skills that tested CC were superior while audiolingual (AL) classes are at national norms. This advantage may be due to length of time. Table 3 gives some idea as to the degree of superiority shown by one method over another (Krashen, 1982, p. 150).

Table 3

Degree of Superiority Shown in Comparative Method Studies (American Series)

Cooperative Tests:	Reading <sup>1</sup>	Writing <sup>1</sup>	Listening comp	Speaking <sup>2</sup>
AL	26	59	25	51
CC	30	64	26	49

Note. 1= Significant difference in favor of CC, 2= Significant difference in favor of AL.  
(From: Chastain and Woerdehoff, 1968)

Both methods resulted in some progress and showed only occasionally significant differences. Although the results are not very different, the -differences are significant.

Another study which is called as the GUME project aimed to compare AL type teaching with 'cognitive' methods (similar to CC) as summarized in Table 4.



Study	Method	Students	Materials	Results
Olsson, 1969	Implicit <sup>1</sup> EX Swedish EX English	Age 14	One structure (passive)	No differences
Levin, 1972	Implicit EX English EX Swedish	Ages 14-15		No overall difference; "advanced" group excels in EX Swedish
Levin, 1972	Implicit EX Swedish EX English	Age 13		No overall difference; more "able" students do well with EX Swedish, but less able do worse
Von Elek & Oskarsson, 1975	IM <sup>2</sup> EX	Adults n = 125	Ten lessons	EXPLICIT significantly better
Von Elek & Oskarsson, 1975	IM EX	Adults n = 91	As above	EXPLICIT significantly better
Von Elek & Oskarsson, 1975	IM EX	Age 12	As above	No difference, due to low performance of one EXPLICIT class
Von Elek & Oskarsson, 1975	EX, IM, EXIM, IMEX <sup>3</sup>	Adults n = 277	4 lessons on 2 structures	EX superior to IM; IMEX better than IM, but not significant; EX superior to EXIM (not predicted)
Von Elek & Oskarsson, 1975	EX, IM, EXIM, IXEM	Age 12 n = 335	4 lessons on 2 structures	Girls tend to conform to the adult pattern (see above) but boys do not

<sup>1</sup> IM = "implicit" (pattern drills only). EX = "explicit" (patterns drills in combination with explanation). EX Swedish = explanation in Swedish. EX English = explanation in English.

<sup>2</sup> IM = "structured and graded pattern drills, performed on the basis of situational pictures projected on a screen in front of the class... no explicit explanations, comparisons with the source language, or translation exercises" (von Elek and Oskarsson, 1975, p. 16). EX = "students were given explicit information about the syntactic characteristics of the structures being practiced... comparisons were made with the corresponding structures in Swedish... grammar was taught deductively... explanations and directions were given before main practice with the structure under study... exercises were mostly of the fill-in type or translation... no pattern drills were performed" (von Elek and Oskarsson, 1975, p. 16-17).

<sup>3</sup> IMEX = identical to IM with the addition of explanation. EXIM = identical to EX with addition of oral pattern drills.

The GUME project found no differences between what they termed ‘implicit’ methods (similar to AL) and ‘explicit’ methods (similar to CC) for adolescent subjects. For adult subjects, explicit methods were found to be better. In addition to simple comparisons of explicit and implicit methods, Von Elek and Oscarsson (cited in Krashen, 1982) found that adding some grammatical explanations to a method based on only pattern drills was helpful. However, adding pattern drills to a cognitive approach did not help.

Swedish studies, like American studies, show only small differences. Stevick (cited in Krashen, 1982) noted the implicit contradiction by stating that “in the field of teaching, Method A is the logical contradiction of Method B: if the assumptions from which A claims to be derived are correct, then B can not work, and vice-versa. Yet one colleague is getting excellent results with A and another is getting excellent results with B. How is this possible?” (p. 151). Krashen (1982) interprets the results by saying that AL, GT and CC do not encourage ‘subconscious’ language acquisition and cognitive methods will allow more learning.

In relation to newer methods, Asher (cited in Krashen, 1982) compared Total Physical Response (TPR) to other methods using children and adults in foreign language classes and second language classes. After 32 hours of TPR for the adult learners in a TPR German course with controls in a standard college course, TPR students outperformed controls, who had had 150 hours of classtime, in a test of listening comprehension, and equalled controls in tests of reading and writing. Interestingly, Asher’s (cited in Krashen, 1982) students progressed nearly five times faster in contrast to the very

small differences seen in older comparative method experiments comparing AL, GT and CC.

Asher, Kusudo and de la Torre (cited in Krashen, 1982) compared TPR students studying Spanish at the university level with AL controls. After 45 hours of TPR instruction, students outperformed controls who had had 150 hours in listening comprehension, and equaled controls' performance on a reading test. In another study (cited in Krashen, 1982) comparing TPR to GT, showed that TPR students outperformed controls who had had the same amount of training (120 hours) but who had started at a proficiency level class. Furthermore, in an experiment of TPR with children at sixth grade and a class consisting of seventh and eight grade students to ninth grade during 40 hours of classtime. All seven different classes exceeded the controls on the test of written production. Thus, it was striking that TPR classes were superior to controls.

A variety of studies have been done examining the efficacy of methods such as TPR that focus on providing comprehensible input and do not force early production. Gary (cited in Krashen, 1982), Postovsky (cited in Krashen, 1982) studies and Swaffer and Woodruff's (cited in Krashen, 1982) study depends on 'comprehensible input' which was evaluated in several ways indicated that input based methods were superior to the others.

In addition to TPR studies, Krashen (1982) reports that there have reports of students learning 1000 words per day using Suggestopedia. Bushman and Madsen (cited in Krashen, 1982) conducted a Suggestopedia experiment at Brigham Young University which reported the superiority of Suggestopedia over AL type methods.

### Key Theoretical Assumptions about the DSP

In traditional language programs language skills; that is to say, listening, speaking, reading, writing and grammar follow each other and are taught separately. In spite of the theoretical arguments for or against this decision, the discrete skills programs have reflected the conventional organization of English courses in the universities for years, for example, in Thai universities.

There are various assumptions concerning the teaching of the DSP. Crandall and Peyton (1993) state that there is a set hierarchy of skills. In other words, productive skills should be taught after receptive skills. Asher's (cited in Richards & Rodgers, 1986) emphasis is on developing comprehension before production, that is, "the teaching of speaking should be delayed until comprehension skills are established" (p. 36). Several different comprehension-based language teaching proposals (Audio-Lingual, TPR) share the same idea that comprehension abilities precede productive skills in learning a language (Richards & Rodgers, 1986).

Another assumption is that all language skills are given equal importance in the DSP unlike the ISP in which listening and speaking skills are ranked as number 1 and 2 in importance, while reading and writing are ranked as numbers 3 and 4. Therefore some skills can be ignored or paid less attention to for the sake of others (Manning, 1990).

### Models for Instruction based on the DSP

Discrete skills programs in which each language skill, listening, speaking, reading, writing and grammar are taught separately, center around basically structural

and skills-based syllabuses. Many textbooks and classroom materials have been organized according to a structural syllabus which is emphasized in Situational or Oral approach and Audiolingual method. The focus is on the grammatical content in a structural syllabus which is centered around grammatical items, such as tenses, articles, singular-plural, complementation and adverbial forms. According to French, (cited in Richards & Rodgers, 1986) “The fundamental is correct speech habits. The pupils should be able to put the words into sentence patterns which are correct” (p. 57). A structural syllabus is a list of the basic structures and sentence patterns of English. The following example of the typical structural syllabus, in which lessons are organized around different grammatical structures, is given by Frisby (cited in Richards & Rodgers, 1986).

Table 5

A Typical Structural Syllabus (cited in Richards & Rodgers, 1986, 13)

	Sentence pattern	Vocabulary
1st lesson	This is. . . That is . . .	book, pencil, ruler, desk,
2nd lesson	These are. . . Those are. . .	chair, picture, door, window,
3rd lesson	Is this. . .? Yes, it is. Is that. . .? Yes it is.	watch, box, pen, blackboard

The Audio-Lingual method is an example of a structure-based approach to language teaching and sentence patterns and grammatical structures are important as in Situational-Structural teaching. Audio-Lingulism stresses “the mechanistic

aspects of language learning. Learning a language, therefore, means learning its rules” (Richards & Rodgers, 1986, 13).

The DSP approach may also use a skill-based approach. The Situational Approach, for example, aims at teaching all basic language skills, however, through ‘structure’ as in many other syllabuses. Similarly, in the Audio-Lingual method, language skills are equally given importance after having a mastery of aural and pronunciation abilities. The traditional way of teaching is followed: receptive skills (listening, speaking) are followed by productive skills (reading, writing) (Richards & Rodgers, 1986).

A skills-based syllabus organizes materials around the language that the students will most need in order to use and continue to learn the language. For instance, a reading course might include such skills as skimming; reading for the general idea, scanning; reading for specific information, guessing vocabulary from context, using prefixes, suffixes and roots and finding main ideas. It can thus be seen that the DSP may have both a structural and skills-based syllabus (Brown, 1995).

### Key Theoretical Assumptions about the ISP

Over the last ten years, views and several assumptions regarding English as a foreign language instruction have changed significantly and new methods have emerged for helping students develop proficiency in English as a second language. There has been a move away from teaching isolated skills to teaching language as a whole and in an integrated approach. Widdowson (1978) states that " if the aim of language learning is to develop underlying interpreting ability, then it would seem

reasonable to adopt an integrated approach to achieve it” (p. 144).

The first assumption is that according to psychological and practical reasons for the integration of skills in language learning, there is a large overlap among the language skills; listening, speaking, reading writing and grammar and in real-life communication, there is frequently alternation between receptive and productive activity as opposed to that comprehension abilities precede productive skills (Abbot, 1981; Bygate, Tonkyn & Williams). Many scholars have commented on the positive relationship between all language skills. It is assumed that to perform one skill without another is impossible. While dealing with one skill, we deal with another skill (Harmer, 1984). Arapoff (1965) supports Harmer (1984) by arguing that grammar, listening, reading, and speaking are requirements for developing writing. The assumptions reflected in the work of Hymes, Munby, Brumfit and Widdowson (cited in Hudelson, 1993) suggest that language teaching should emphasize integration as opposed to the separation of traditional skills areas since authentic language use often involves the use of more than one skill. Likewise, Johnson (1973) recommended that basic communication skills course should be integrated skills package.

A second assumption is that what is taken in through more than one channel is more likely to be learned well. That is, the different channels can reinforce one another (Widdowson, 1979). Success in language learning depends basically on the mastery of listening, speaking, reading and writing skills in a second language.

Evans (1989) believes that

artificially segmenting the skills into four separate

entities for the sake of instruction is neither pedagogically sound nor an efficient use of time. It also puts the students... at cross purposes with the instructor and the curriculum, thereby creating an unhealthy environment for optimum language learning by dampening the students motivation, a major factor in second language acquisition.

(p. 8)

Evans (1989) argues that an intensive university level English course which was designed to prepare foreign students to enter American universities and compete successfully with American students showed that “designing lessons which integrate the skill areas of listening, speaking, reading and writing is not only a more natural and realistic approach to language learning, but also provides that no skill area will be slighted” (p. 9). This integrated skills curriculum stimulated students to read and write while allowing opportunities to develop the speaking and listening skills which students feel are an essential part of their second language education.

A third assumption, according to Enright and McCloskey (1988) is that "if the whole of language is greater than the sum of its parts and if the whole of the process of language learning is also greater than the sum of its parts, then instruction should be organized in an integrated way" (p. 26). For example, Manning (1990) mentions a research study which aimed at comparing writing skills of the students in an ISP in which all language skills are presented together with the other students in a discrete skills program revealed that students in the whole language group were better writers



who view themselves as writers of real texts and had confidence in themselves as writers. The key theoretical assumptions of the integrated language teaching model accept language as having a limitless capacity to make meaning and therefore should not be broken down and taught as tiny discrete skills. Students need multiple opportunities both to take in (i.e., listen and read) and to give out (i.e., speak and write) this real language in order to become successful second language communicators and thinkers. Enright and McCloskey (1988) argue that

students develop language and literacy as part of  
a broader process of semiotic or meaning- making  
development. They do this through using the processes  
of listening, speaking, reading and writing in concert  
with one another rather than separately. Thus the  
development of each language process can support  
the development of the others (language skills)

(p. 19).

The fourth assumption supports skills integration by arguing that people have different learning abilities and that they learn through the ear, the eye and muscular movement. The integration of language skills is summarized by Alexander (1967) saying that:

Nothing should be spoken before it has been heard.  
Nothing should be read before it has been spoken  
Nothing should be written before it has been read.

(p. 170)

Another assumption that presents an organic view of grammar learning is presented by Rutherford (1987) criticizing the linear conception of grammar learning as discrete grammatical points or separate parcels in some grammar textbooks that follow the building-block view of grammar learning, for example, the present simple proceeding the simple past tense. For learning grammar progressively as a system, it is better to learn grammar in terms of a cyclic progression: "revisiting, developing and enriching what one has already learned, elaborating new and related knowledge as one goes, and building a sense of the interrelatedness of choices" (1987, p. 19). Thus, grammatical knowledge evolves organically rather than growing in discrete steps.

#### Models for Instruction based on the ISP

There has been a movement away from narrow methods to broader integrated approaches in language teaching in the past decade. Various models are used in an attempt to achieve integration of skills. These models include the teaching of all basic language skills with structures and communicative goals in a new holistic view.

Snow (cited in Celce-Murcia, 1991) argues for content-based language in which language is best learned when it is used as a means to accomplish some other purpose. The rationale for content-based instruction is explained by Swain (cited in Celce-Murcia, 1991) as "in addition to comprehensible input, students must produce comprehensible output" (p. 316). Thus, all basic language skills are used in content-based approach.

Another suggestion, a literature model comes from Stern (cited in Celce-

Murcia, 1991). This model is based on selected pieces of literature in the target language which are used as content for language learning practice. The mastery of the vocabulary and grammar of the language with other language skills is provided by literature. All these skills are practiced by reading of literary work.

Lastly, Eyring (cited in Celce-Murcia, 1991) emphasizes using the learner's experience as a basis for language learning. Experiential learning is derived from natural activities where both the left side and right side of the brain are engaged (Danesi, 1988; Celce-Murcia, 1991), content is contextualized (Omaggio, 1986, Celce-Murcia, 1991), skills are integrated (Moustafa & Penrose cited in Celce-Murcia, 1991) and purposes are real (Cray, 1988; Celce-Murcia, 1991). Counseling learning, cooperative learning, task-based learning, content-based learning, whole-language approach, the natural approach, language experience approach and English for Specific Purposes can be considered as integrated approaches. The most important point is that, in all these ISP approaches, 'basic language skills' are promoted in addition to language development in 'grammar' and 'vocabulary'.

In addition to Content-based, Literature model and Experiential learning, the Communicative Approach has produced profound changes, particularly in the product area in which interest in the language skills has been re-emphasized. In terms of practical implementation learning and teaching do not stop with only one language skill. The speaking, listening, reading and writing skills are re-defined in terms of the communicative goals. Unlike the 'discrete element view of language', particularly in audiolingual and cognitive-code approaches, in the communicative approach, a notional-functional meaning with grammar is integrated with thematic,

topical content and lexis in a 'holistic view' (Dubin & Olshtain, 1986). Topical syllabuses and thematic syllabuses are organized around topics, such as divorce, single parents, abortion, crime, terrorism, nuclear disasters and others.

### Objectives in Syllabus Statements

No matter what type of syllabus is used, there are generally three primary concerns of a syllabus: 1) language content, 2) process or means, and 3) product or outcomes. According Dubin and Olshtain (1986) course designers ask 'key' questions such as the following:

1. What elements, items, items or themes of language content should be selected for inclusion in the syllabus?
2. In what order or sequence should the elements be presented in the syllabus?
3. What are the criteria for deciding on order of elements in the syllabus?

(p. 42)

If a syllabus is strictly based on a particular philosophy of education, another set of questions should be asked about the process dimension:

1. How should language be presented to facilitate the acquisition process?
2. What should the roles of teachers and learners be in the learning process?
3. How should the materials contribute to the process of language learning in the classroom?

Course designers will ask the following questions if specific achievements are

important.

1. What knowledge is the learner expected to attain by the end of the course? What understandings based on analyses of structures and lexis will learners have as an outcome of the course?
2. What specific language skills do learners need in their immediate future, or in their professional lives? How will these skills be presented in the syllabus?
3. What techniques of evaluation or examination in the target language will be used to assess course outcomes?

(Dubin & Olshtain, 1986, p. 42)

In all syllabuses that direct language programs, specific objectives are stated implicitly or explicitly according to the syllabus design.

### Different Types of Syllabuses used in the DSP and ISP

A syllabus is generally defined as a way of organizing courses and materials. Different language programs are designed from different syllabuses. The familiar structural syllabus which is centered around items such as tenses, articles and the like is called as 'traditional' until functional and notional syllabuses exist (Dubin & Olshtain, 1986). After the structural syllabus, language teaching programs were designed around many different syllabuses (Salimbene, 1983). McKay (1978) defines three types of syllabuses: structural, situational and functional syllabuses. In addition to these three syllabuses, Brown mentions four other types of syllabuses: topical, notional, skills-based and task-based syllabuses. Table 6 presents all syllabus types mentioned.

Table 6

Types of Syllabuses (Brown, 1995, p. 7).

Categories	Definitions
Syllabuses	Ways of Organizing Courses and Materials
Structural:	Grammatical and phonological structures are the organizing principles-sequenced from easy to difficult or frequent to less frequent.
Situational:	Situations (such as at the bank, at the supermarket, at the restaurant, and so forth) form the organizing principle, sequenced by the likelihood students will encounter them (structural sequence may be in background).
Topical:	Topics or themes (such as health, food, clothing, and so forth) form the organizing principle, sequenced by the likelihood that students will encounter them (structural sequence may be in background).
Functional:	Functions (such as identifying, reporting, correcting, describing, and so forth) are the organizing principle, sequenced by some sense of chronology or usefulness of each function (structural and situational sequences may be in background)
Notional:	Conceptual categories called notions (such as duration, quantity, location and so forth) are the basis of organization, sequenced by sense of chronology or usefulness of each notion (structural and situational sequences may be in background).
Skills-Based:	Language skills (such as listening for gist, listening for inferences, scanning a reading passage for specific information, and so forth) serve as the basis for organization sequenced by some sense chronology or usefulness for each skill (structural and situational sequences may be in background).
Task-Based:	Task or activity-based categories (such as drawing maps, following directions, following instructions and so forth) serve as the basis for organization, sequenced by sense of chronology or usefulness of notions (structural and situational sequences may be in background).

Allen (cited in White, 1988) summarizes these types of syllabuses in two categories in terms of the distinction between an interventionist approach which

gives priority to the pre-specification of linguistic or other content or skill objectives on the one hand, and a non-interventionist, experiential, 'natural growth' approach on the other, which aims to immerse the learners in real- life communication without any artificial pre-selection or arrangement of items. Structural and skills-based syllabuses will be the concern of this research study.

### Instructional Materials in Grammar Instruction

This section covers methods an analysis of language learning materials, stages of evaluation, three dimensions of material organization, general formats in material design, process-oriented or product-oriented materials, grammar books versus coursebooks and activity types in the DSP and ISP.

### Methods in Analysis of Language Learning Materials

There are many views on textbook evaluation. Tucker (cited in Madsen, 1978) has a set of suggestions for those who have a responsibility for evaluating beginning textbooks for English. The criteria suggested by Tucker (cited in Madsen, 1978) have been divided into four categories: pronunciation, grammar, content, and general. According to Tucker (cited in Madsen, 1978), the evaluation of a beginning textbook should include:

1. A comprehensive set of criteria- consistent with the basic linguistics, psychological, and pedagogical principles.
2. A flexible rating scheme providing a method for the comparative weighting of the criteria and a simple system for recording the evaluator's judgement

of each.

3. A rating chart that facilitates a quick and easy display of the evaluator's judgement on each criterion and presents a graphic profile of the total evaluation.

4. A visual comparison between the evaluator's opinion of the book and a hypothetical ideal.

According to Harmer (1983), by using the descriptions of the students and students' needs and type of materials appropriate for students should be identified so that material types can be organized according to students' needs. Figure 3 summarizes Harmer's views ( 1983)

Description of students	Description of student needs
Conclusions:  type of materials  appropriate for students	

Figure 3. Harmer's views (p. 237)

In Jenks' (1981) approach to the evaluation of textbooks, students' needs are examined and put into two categories. The first one is a teacher centered approach. Jenks (1981) states that the teacher knows what students must learn, how they must learn it in what order language must be taught and what the outcomes must be. However, he criticises this approach arguing that the teachers or coordinators may think that the students' real needs are reading and writing but, on the other hand; they may not have grasped the important structures in the target language. In the second



approach which is learner-centered, the needs of the learners' are derived from the learners and are later formulated into objectives. According to student progress the needs are redefined.

### Stages of Evaluation

As textbooks present aims and methods of teaching/learning situation, teachers must select them carefully. Teachers have a chance to compare their teaching and learning situation with the underlying view of language teaching in the textbooks. Information about the nature of the textbook such as the author's view of language and learning and whether there is an agreement between theoretical assumptions and actual practice in the class can provide opportunities for comparison. According to Hutchinson (1987), there are four initial stages involved in evaluation.

### Stages Up To Matching

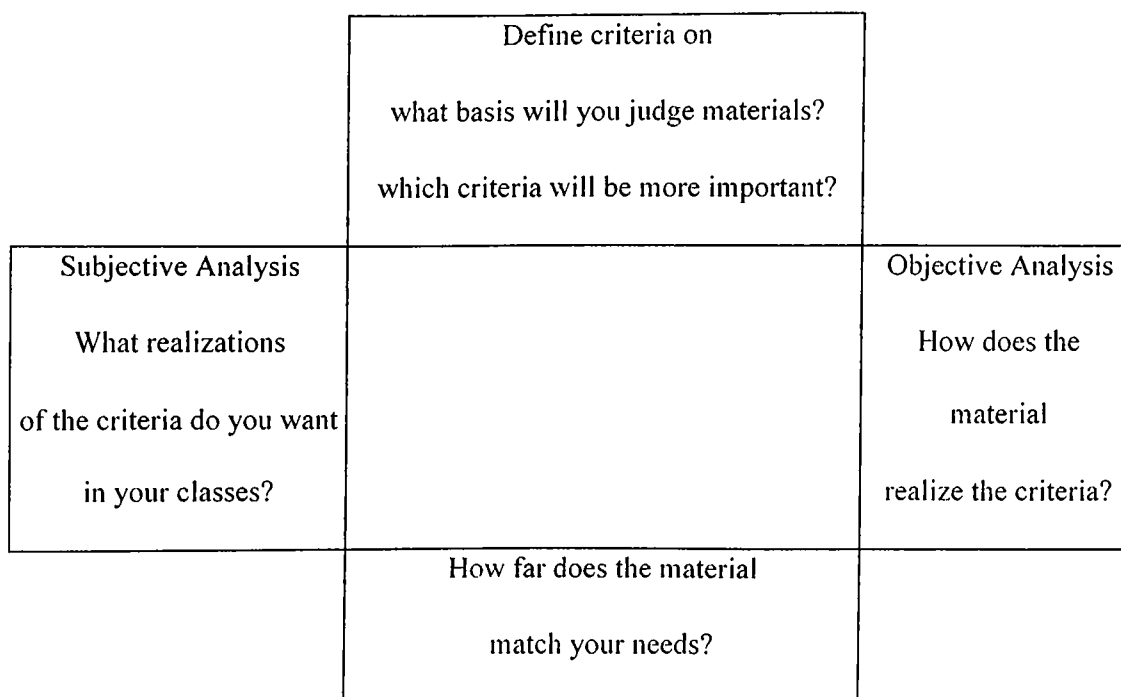


Figure 4. Hutchinson's views (p. 41)

Initial stages in evaluation of textbooks can be useful in the following ways:

First, instructors will identify whether there is an agreement between underlying view of language teaching and the actual practice in the classroom. Second, if there is a conflict, it should be resolved by the instructor. Third, instructors will identify their priorities related to criteria and teachers can identify the unsatisfactory parts of the textbook to make necessary evaluation.

The questions below are asked in the 'catalyst test' that can be administered to give an overall impression of the textbook for the initial stage of evaluation by Grant (cited in Kuo, 1993).

- Communicative?
- Aims?
- Teachability?

- Available?
- Level?
- Your impression?
- Student interest?
- Tried and tested?

Following the initial stages of evaluation, it is advised that an in-use evaluation be conducted. This stage is important as in the teaching process, many expectations may change. Hence it is at this stage that the needs of the students can be matched to the available texts. In the in-use evaluation stage, a questionnaire is given to the instructor. However, there are no guidelines in the literature with the implication that each institutions can design their own model.

### Three Dimensions of Material Organization

Language programs are different in language content, process and product or outcomes such as the language skills learners are expected to master. In the history of language pedagogy, shifting views on the nature of language and the nature of language learning have tended to make one or the other more prominent (Dubin & Olshtain, 1986).

In traditional syllabuses and materials, the linguistic 'content' has been determined by a particular theoretical view of the nature of language. For example, if the linguistic content is primary, then the thematic and situational or topical content are usually selected after the linguistic has been established. In other words, their main function is supportive and complementary to the linguistic content (Dubin &

Olshtain, 1986).

DSP approaches are basically based on the Audio-Lingual Method , which draws on from structuralism with the emphasis on deliberate sequencing of grammatical structures and on vocabulary. Dubin and Olshtain (1986) note that “this emphasis was so powerful that often the thematic content was completely ignored and the grammar and vocabulary were presented in isolated and unrelated sentences without any thematic or topical thread” (p. 51). As a result, the functional and the thematic contents which refer to the topics of interest and areas of subject knowledge selected as themes to talk or read about to learn and use the target language or topical contents are dictated by the linguistic content that is to say, structures.

The process dimension refers to how instruction is carried out and learning is achieved. Three different areas, which form process, are stated by Dubin and Olshtain (1986) as follows:

1. The organization of the language content which brings about certain activities.
2. The roles that the teachers and learners take on during the learning process.
3. The types of activities and tasks in which learners are engaged.

(p.46)

Decisions regarding the ‘organization of course content’, ‘presentation of new topics’ and ‘their sequence and scope of treatment are related to the underlying educational and linguistic assumptions’. Some learning theories advocate a sequence which progresses from simple to complex forms while others begin with the most frequently used forms to

less frequent ones (See presentation of rules for a discussion of learning theories)

Krashen (1982).

In syllabus design, organization can be seen in two ways: as it relates to an overall program and as concerned with the presentation of new topics. According to Dubin and Olshtain (1986), the most familiar shape or system of organization is the sequential ordering of elements which is called as a linear table of contents since the items to be taught or the areas covered are set out as in a line. However, the order of grammar units are traditionally presented in beginning-level English language textbooks without having any theoretical justifications. Alexander (1976, cited in Dubin & Olshtain, p. 47) thinks that the presentation order is the embodiment of the cumulative experience of language teachers. As an example, many of the structural type of textbooks start with 'be' sentences. It can be argued that 'be' sentences can be highly productive in English. Besides, there is no theoretical reason why a syllabus begin with 'be' rather than with some other sentence types.

The second feature of organization relates to the presentation of new learning items. Some are presented inductively in which examples are given first and generalizations come later while others hold out for a deductive one, in which the rule is given first and then applied to various examples, while others combine the teaching models (see section on 'presentation of rules').

In the product dimension, course outcomes can be divided into knowledge-oriented or skill-oriented types. What the students will learn by the end of the course is primary. Content can be specified as reading selections to be covered during the course, as linguistic structures or functions, and as vocabulary. Focus on knowledge

can be characterized as accuracy in language courses since learners are expected to become proficient in linguistic forms and the students' mastery can be exhibited on a discrete point test because focus on knowledge emphasizes discrete points of grammar (Dubin & Olshtain, 1986).

When the skill-oriented syllabus type is selected by course designers, a particular skill is held primary rather than knowledge or content. In a skill-oriented organization, reading skills or communicative skills or other language skills are emphasized based on the expectations of the learners.

There are significant differences between a knowledge-oriented approach and a skill-oriented approach. The first is less sensitive to the specific needs of learners and is easily adaptable to any population of learners while the second, the skill-oriented approach, is more sensitive to students' needs. Another difference between knowledge/content and skill-oriented types is that content can more easily be divided into various interim objectives while this is not possible in the skill-oriented approach (Dubin & Olshtain, 1986).

### General Formats in Material Design

According to different formats such as structural, communicative, thematic or functional, materials can be presented in the linear format, the modular format, the cyclical format, the matrix format or the story line format.

The traditional format of discrete element content, particularly grammar or structures, is the linear shape. Sequencing and grading are important. In other words, teachers can not change the order of units or skip some of them. A strict

linear shape does not work well when the categories of language content are notional or functional since there is no sequence or order in them which seems best (Johnson, 1982; Dubin & Olshtain, 1986). Many textbooks use linear shapes without employing the principles of ordering. Appendix D shows part of a table of contents of a beginning level textbook, English Alpha (Units 1-7) (cited in Dubin & Olshtain, 1986) in which linear ordering of grammatical elements follows a familiar outline. On the other hand, the ‘communication practice’ in each unit is introduced related to grammar base.

The modular format is used for a program in which the objective is maximum flexibility (See Appendix E for a sample modular format). In the modular format, themes or situations are integrated with the academically oriented skills. Each module, consisting of a sequence of skills, is carried out maintaining the same unit theme:

1. Reading: students do background reading as preparation for the lecture.
2. Listening comprehension/note taking: students hear a mini-lecture. . .

During weeks 6-14 a typical class works on three topics, but each time the same cycle of skills is repeated (See Appendix E).

The same topic is repeated more than once , but each time it reappears at a more complex or difficult level. In the cyclic shape, new subject matter should not be introduced once in a syllabus and then dropped; it should be reintroduced at various stages in the course. For example, in ‘English in Situations’ (O’Neill, 1970; Dubin & Olshtains, 1986), the same grammatical topics which are reintroduced in Part A are recycled in Parts B and C (See Appendix F).

The matrix order gives users maximum flexibility to select topics from a table of contents in a random order, the matrix suits to situational content . Each matrix includes four or five communicative activities as seen in Appendix G.

In the last type of material design model, the storyline format, coherence is maintained by notions and functions. On the one hand, thematic continuity and ordering of categories in relation to one another is adopted by various textbooks. Appendix H shows the story-line format which is of a different type since it is basically a narrative type.

#### Process-Oriented or Product-Oriented Materials

Process-oriented materials emphasize what learners need to acquire the language for while product-oriented ones emphasize what the learners are supposed to acquire. Most of the English as a second language teaching materials were product-oriented materials in the last decade. According to Kuo (1993), the underlying assumption was that the content of the materials could be determined by the target language that learners were required to know for their specific purposes in their specialised areas. The content of the course or the materials are selected on the basis of the criterion activating the strategies for learning while the course is in progress in process-oriented materials. Candlin and Breen (1980) note that "Materials can be seen as means to the target rather than the target itself" (p. 183). In other words, the process of learning is more important than serving as the goal. They state that the primary concern for materials should be the process of communication.



Kuo (1993) mentions the following characteristics of Process-oriented materials.

1. They are dynamic and unpredictable in nature.
2. They are cognitively demanding.
3. They facilitate interaction and negotiation among learners.
4. They facilitate the development of both linguistic knowledge and communication skills.
5. They require learners to use the communication skills they acquire in the learning tasks.
6. They focus on the learning process.
7. They involve learners in problem-solving activities.

(p. 175-176)

The reasoning processes and problem solving approach cannot be taught with product-oriented materials (Van Naersen & Kaplan, 1986; Kuo, 1993). In evaluation of the textbooks, product-oriented and process-oriented materials adopted according to the types of syllabuses in which 'what to learn' and 'how to learn' are emphasized. .

### Grammar Books versus Coursebooks

In more traditional approaches to language teaching, a coursebook was primarily a grammar book; however, as language can not be equated with teaching grammar only, other textbooks in which language skills are integrated have been

started to be used in foreign language teaching (Bygate, Tonky & Williams, 1994).

Greenbaum (1991) believes that pedagogical grammar books teach the language and not knowledge about the language. He has divided grammar books into four types: reference, pedagogical, teach-yourself (self- study) and theoretical.

Although sometimes reference grammars and pedagogical grammars overlap in the way they are used, reference books are used for self-help, but pedagogical grammar books are used as course books. The desirable characteristics of such a book as described by Greenbaum (1991). Firstly, a pedagogical grammar book must be constrained by the length of class lessons, grammar topics and material should be graded and determined on psycholinguistic grounds (the best methods for learning a foreign language). In addition, while learners should be helped by having their attention drawn to general rules, it should provide for practical applications (exercises should be in a separate book). In the sense Greenbaum argues for, pedagogical grammar is not only grammar for learners, but a specific type of coursebook. Crystal (cited in Bygate, Tonky & Williams, 1994) also agrees with Greenbaum's (1991) definition of the types of grammar and he lists six types of grammar as descriptive, pedagogical, prescriptive, reference, theoretical and traditional.

Only reference, prescriptive and pedagogical grammars seem to apply to actual coursebooks. Pedagogical grammar books are specifically designed for teaching a foreign language. In a survey Bygate (Bygate, Tonky & Williams, 1994) conducted to see how grammar is presented pedagogically, 25 books of British publishers mainly have been surveyed. Few of the authors used the word

pedagogical. Almost all the books, except two books, Longman English Grammar (Alexander, 1988) and The Students Grammar of English (van Ek & Robat, 1984; Bygate, Tonky & Williams, 1994), were found to be reference or source books on English grammar. One American practice book (Azar, 1985; Bygate, Tonkyn & Williams, 1994) and a British book, 'Using English Grammar', (Woods & McLeod, 1990; Bygate, Tonkyn & Williams) are claimed to be coursebooks. Although the two grammar books are coursebooks for native speakers, they do not teach the language, but teach about language, unlike the definition of pedagogical grammars.

Today's coursebooks give emphasis on language in use and learning as fun. Chalkers (cited in Bygate, Tonkyn & Williams, 1994) states the characteristics of current textbooks as:

Chapters may be labeled by themes or topics (advertising, crime, health, etc.); there may be units on functions and situations (warning, persuading, taking notes, etc.) and sections may be devoted to pair work or projects, to games or problem solving. In addition, the course may include specific sections on consolidating the four skills

(Bygate, Tonkyn & Williams, 1994, p. 41)

When the three coursebooks from the 1950s and 1960s, in which structuralism and traditional grammar was dominant, are compared with four new ones published in the 1990s, some obvious differences were found in that the new coursebooks have bigger pages and they are presented as packages with cassettes. The coursebooks of the 1990s are much more lively (one of them has a framework described as a fictious

television programme and the other has a soap opera story) that try to involve the learners more (the very first lesson begins with greetings instead of teaching the names of the objects). In addition to these striking differences, new books are not afraid of giving grammar summaries. Consolidating the four skills is the most substantial difference in new books (Bygate, Tonkyn & Williams, 1994).

There is no great difference in the ordering of the grammar although the three earlier books introduce the present continuous several units before the present simple and all four 1990s books teach present simple before present continuous. A major difference between the coursebooks and the grammar books is that coursebooks are useful, frequent and easier to teach and continually recycle structures that meet Greenbaum's criterion of grading which argues pedagogical grammar and its books teach language not about the language. The primary organization is made by grammatical categories. Today, most classes use coursebooks supported with reference and practice grammar books (cited in Bygate, Tonkyn & Williams, 1994).

In recent years, the focus on foreign language programs has been on an integrated skills approach to teaching and learning a second language with the goal being proficiently in speaking, listening, reading and writing. It is stated that language teachers should decide if grammar is to play a central or a subordinate role. In most cases, the amount of grammar is determined by the choice of a textbook. It is clear that grammatical textbooks do not provide enough contextualized activities. Instead of providing many instances of the same structure focusing on form than on meaning as in audio-lingual days, the combination of skills and contextualization of grammatical points aid the learner in understanding form better. As seen in many

instances of the same meaning-form relationship given, the learners receive a great deal of listening and reading practice as well and grammar instruction and the development of other skills have a relationship as Terrell (1991) argues.

### Activity Types in the DSP and ISP

Learning and teaching activities vary in DSP and ISP in terms of 'instruction', 'steps' that will be followed in class implementation, 'focus skill' and 'skills practiced'.

As can be seen in the following examples taken from Richards and Rodgers (1986), in DSP grammar is generally practiced in only grammar activities, in isolated sentences without authentic instructions which serve real purposes. Grammar practice does not consist of chain drills in class implementation which gives recycling of language throughout the activity.

#### Repetition

I used to know him. I used to know him.

#### Inflection

He bought the candy. He bought the candies.

#### Replacement

Helen left early. She left early.

#### Restatement

Tell him to wait for you. Wait for me.

#### Completion

I'll go my way and you go .... I'll go my way and you go yours.

Transposition

I'm hungry. So am I.

Expansion

I know him. (hardly). I hardly know him.

Contraction

Put your hand on the table. Put your hand there.

Transformation

He knows my address.

He doesn't know my address.

Does he know my address?

Integration

They must be honest. + This is important. It is important that they be honest.

Rejoinder

Thank you. You're welcome.

Where did it happen? In the middle of the street.

He's following us. I think you're right.

Restoration

students / waiting / bus - The students are waiting for the bus. (p. 54-56)

The following structure exercise is an another example of mechanical grammar practice. It is taken from 'Writing Scientific English Swales' (cited in Honeyfield, 1988).

*Isolated grammar example:* Rewrite these 15 sentences putting in the main verb *is* or *are*.

1. These . . . test-tubes.
2. Cast-iron . . . . not as strong as steel.
3. Oxygen . . . . necessary for all growth.

In all three sentences which are mostly used in the DSP, grammar is a focus skill. The mechanical exercises do not generally give opportunity of practicing structures in follow-up drills in which some other language skills can be focused in different steps.

In the ISP, the language skills are integrated. Skills integration is defined as the situation where the two or more of the 'language skills', reading, writing, listening and speaking and grammar as a sub-skill are combined or related in a meaningful way in language teaching (Honeyfield, 1988). Honeyfield (1988) argues that "the idea of the learning and practicing of one skill helping and enriching that of another" (p. 25). Littlewood (cited in Richards & Rodgers, 1986) distinguishes between functional communication activities and social interaction activities as major activity types in Communicative Language Teaching. Functional communication activities include comparing sets of pictures and noting similarities and differences, working out a sequence of events in a set of pictures, discovering missing features in a map or picture, one learner communicating behind a screen to another learner and giving instructions on how to draw a picture or shape, or how to complete a map, following directions and solving problems from shared clues. Social interaction activities include conversation and discussion sessions, dialogues and role plays, simulations, skits, improvisations, and debates. In the ISP,

communicative exercises are generally used in addition to the mechanical exercises and grammar usually is integrated with listening, speaking, reading or writing skills. Chain-drills which have more than one step are the typical activity types. In addition, instructions are more authentic that serves real-life purpose such as “Discuss ‘where does lions live?’ and What do they it?’ before reading the passage and then write a short descriptive paragraph about the animal which you will choose from the picture”.

The following table is a sample from a chain drill activity which is generally used in the ISP.

Table 7

Exercise Chain Example: (Carter, 1990, p. 46)

Skills	Skills Practiced
1. T introduces topic- ‘Animals’. T asks Ss questions to elicit what they know about lions e.g. Where do lions live? What do they eat? How long do they live?	S, L, G
2. Ss read short descriptive passage on lions to check/find out the answers to the questions in 1.	R
3. Ss compare how many answers they got right in 1, and how much information was new to them.	S, L
4. Ss work in pairs and choose another animal. They discuss and make notes in answer to a set of questions e.g. Where does it live? What does it eat?	S, W, G
5. Ss write short descriptive passage on animal they have chosen based on the information in their notes and using the original passage on lions as a model.	W

Note. R= Reading, W= Writing, G= Grammar, L= Listening, S= Speaking

The integration of language skills can be achieved in two ways; traditional and real-life integration. In the traditional skills integration, receptive skills



(listening and reading) are always followed by productive skills (speaking and writing). In other words, listening is always followed by speaking and reading is always followed by writing; however, in real life skills integration, a language skill, such as listening can be followed by any of the language skills, like reading or speaking or writing. That is, there is no order in the real life skills integration as in real life situations. In the real life skills integration, authentic instructions and situations are preferred as seen in the following activity.

Table 8

The Real Life Skills Integration (Carter, 1990, p. 37)

Activity	Skills practiced
A telephones the station to enquire about train times	<i>S, L, G</i>
A takes down information in note form	<i>W</i>
A tells B the information. A and B decide which train to take	<i>S</i>
A writes card to C confirming travel plans and time of arrival	<i>W, G</i>
Note. R= Reading, W= Writing, G= Grammar, L= Listening, S= Speaking	

As can be seen from Table 8, grammar can be practiced through the other language skills and any of the language skills can be focused in the activity in which grammar is practiced. According to Carter (1990, p. 38) “there are a number of important advantages in providing students with the kind of integrated skills practice”. Activities involving grammar with all four skills provide a variety that maintains motivation of the students. It may be helpful for the learner who is weaker or less confident in one particular skill. Since it allows naturally for the recycling and revision of language, grammar points can be taught more easily. In addition, one of the most important advantages of integration of grammar to the other language skills is that it gives a chance to recognize different structures that are learned in different contexts and modes. Moreover, grammar and other language skills are

developed within a realistic and communicative framework.

Grammar can be integrated with basic language skills. For example, Krater (cited in Archibald, 1984) supports skills integration in grammar practice by saying "what convinced me of the futility of teaching grammar in isolation was personal experience. I came to the conclusion that grammar and mechanics are best taught through the writing process" (p. 27). Another way of integrated grammar instruction is the use of speaking and listening activities. Verner and Williams (cited in Honeyfield, 1988) comment on "why practice the language simply by completing worksheets or exercises in the grammar book?"

It is argued by Grittner (1983) that "a language program can become a boring and meaningless series of disconnected drills on grammar without integration to other language skills and culture" (p. 28). Grittner (1983) expresses his bias against treating skills as completely separate entities by saying, "it seems obvious that the kinds of activities that are done with culture, reading, writing, speaking and listening comprehension automatically contribute to grammar" (p.28). The new integrated approach is in contrast to the assumption that students must learn language skills regardless of context. He concludes by arguing that "best results are achieved (in language instruction) by students who develop an integrative attitude toward the language skills" (p. 28).

### Grammar Instruction Procedure

This section reviews general organization models of grammar teaching. inductive teaching versus deductive teaching and the use of native or target language

in terms of grammar presentation, contextualization of grammatical rules and authenticity of texts and tasks in terms of grammar presentation, sequencing of rules in presentation and practice, error correction and evaluation of grammatical rules.

### General Organization Models of Grammar Teaching

Many different organization models have been used in grammar teaching.

According to Pittman (cited in Richards & Rodgers, 1986), teaching of a structure consists of four parts (RPOR). They are:

1. revision (to prepare for new work if necessary)
2. presentation of new structure or vocabulary
3. oral practice (drilling)
4. reading of material on the new structure, or written exercises

(p. 40)

Another organization model was suggested by Richards and Rodgers (1986).

Presentation, practice and feedback (PPF) model consists of three dimensions of teaching of a grammatical structure. Many teaching activities such as drills, dialogues and information-gap activities, are used for presentation of a new language and demonstration of “formal, communicative or other aspects of the target language” (p. 26) and practicing language. Feedback is given to the learners “concerning the form or content of their utterances or sentences” (p. 26).

Ur’s (1988) PEPT (presentation, explanation, practice and test) model for teaching grammar organization consists of four stages. A grammatical structure is usually presented in a text to get the learners to perceive the form and meaning of the

structure which is usually explained in the students' native language and translation and generalizations are used to make clear the structure. At the explanation stage, there is a move away from the context. The practice stage consists of a series of exercises done both in the classroom and for home assignments. Some exercises are purely form-based (mechanical) ones while the others are meaning-based (communicative) ones which let the students to grasp the form and the application of the structure together. "Learners do tests in order to demonstrate - to themselves and to the teacher - how well they have mastered the material they have been learning" (Ur, 1988, p. 9). While practice exercises supply informal feedback, formal examinations provide feedback.

According to Richards' (1986) PPCE (presentation, practice, correction and evaluation) model, in addition to presentation, practice and evaluation stages which are noted in the previous grammar teaching models. the correction stage is newly mentioned. Correction is carried out by the teacher, students themselves or other students directly or indirectly and immediately or later while transferring what they know from short-term to long-term memory during the practice stage. This research study was designed to the Richards' PPCE grammar teaching organization model (cited in Carter, 1990).

### Presentation of Rules

How rules should be given is an important issue in grammar instruction.

Deductive or inductive presentation, the use of the target or native language and the

sequence of rules in presentation are the main issues that will be reviewed in this section.

### Inductive Teaching versus Deductive Teaching

The role of grammar in a language classroom and its presentation has been a question over the years in styles of teaching of first and second or foreign languages. Few researchers advocate abandoning the teaching of grammar totally.

Deductive versus inductive presentation of grammar is a controversial issue in second language acquisition. For many scholars and teachers, deductive teaching seems much more reasonable. They think that instead of making students guess the rule, after a clear explanation rules should be practiced until they are internalized. Cognitive-code teaching as well as grammar- translation can be given as examples of the rule-first deductive approach.

On the other hand, some argue that inductive teaching is the best way because learners work out the rule themselves. It should be clarified that both inductive and deductive learning are learning. Inductive learning should not be confused with acquisition. An inductively-learned rule is described by Krashen (1982) as “a conscious mental representation of a linguistic generalization” (p. 114) and rule practice (deductive) or rule- searching (inductive) will not be optimal input for acquisition since focus is on form rather than on message.

In the teaching of both first and foreign languages in academic institutions in the late nineteenth century, the deductive grammar teaching (Howatt, 1984) was emphasized. The focus has changed from deductive to inductive for the teaching of

the mother language and for foreign languages. Rutherford (1987) and Ellis (1993) point out that cognitive theories of second language learning help to account for grammatical explanations in the L2 classroom. Ellis (1993) summarized by arguing that "according to cognitive theory, formal instruction can help to increase the learner's analyzed knowledge" (p. 27).

Ellis (1993) accepts Krashen's (1982) argument that learning cannot become acquisition, but sees deductive knowledge having an important role in the learning process. In most institutional learning situations deductive and inductive learning are used together. The view "the less the learners have to be bothered with grammatical terminology and grammatical explanation, the better" is taken in many institutions (cited in Bygate, Tonky & Williams, 1994, p. 18).

VanPatten (cited in Scott & Randall, 1992) argues against linguistic accuracy and formal grammar instruction in the early and mid stages of learning a language since learners must be engaged in communication throughout the developmental process of basic language skills. Therefore, he suggests delaying the acquisition of grammatical features of language until the advanced stage of learning.

A report of a piece of action research (VanPatten, 1991) sought university students' preferences on deductive and inductive types of grammar practice exercises. The findings mentioned in the report indicate that while higher language level of learners prefer inductive exercises, lower levels of learners prefer deductive exercises as they felt insecure without seeing the rule first. Some students' comments support Harmer's (1987) and Lewis' (cited in Celce-Murcia, 1991) views on motivation that inductive work facilitates the memorization of grammatical

structures. A high level student states her preference in favor of inductive grammar by saying, "It makes me work harder and use my common sense. I find it rewarding to find out the rules myself" (Ana, Portugal, on inductive exercises). It can be said that deductive learners are left-brain analytic thinkers while inductive learners are right-brain and analogic thinkers (Hartnett, 1974; Krashen, Seliger & Hartnett, 1974; Krashen, 1982). If there are individual differences in preference of rule presentations, insistence on the wrong approach in language teaching programs may raise anxieties and strengthen the affective filter.

Seeing a rule is important for many of those who preferred deductive type of practice because they feel more secure with a rule and they cannot be hundred percent sure that they have found the right rule. The students' preferences supported Elsenstein (cited in Fortune, 1992) views on grammar instruction as Elsenstein (cited in Fortune, 1992) argues that "both deductive and inductive presentation can be useful depending on the cognitive style, level of the learner and the structure to be presented" (p. 78).

#### Use of Native or Target Language in Presentation of Grammar

In addition to inductive versus deductive teaching, another another important consideration in rule presentation is the language used for the medium of instruction. It is difficult for the instructor to present grammar in the target language if it is not reinforced in the text. If the textbook explanations are in English, the students can study the grammar outside the class. However, learners may still have questions and require additional explanations from the instructor since they are not ready to

understand grammatical explanations in the target language at the beginning and mid stages of learning grammar.

Grammatical rules should be taught in the target language since this provides comprehensible input for acquisition (Krashen, 1982). The teachers' role is to present the grammatical concept in the target language using a minimum amount of complicated terminology and making necessary modifications, "switching from one language to another is confusing and breaks the flow of meaning" (Scott & Randall 1992, p. 358).

However, it is difficult to teach and learn grammar without a constant use of the target language, the presentation of grammar should include a clear-cut explanation by use of gestures, diagrams, contextualized examples and other language skills to avoid using native language (1992).

### Practice of Rules

Grammar can be learned through the practice of rules after target structures are introduced and explained. Contextualization vs. isolation and authenticity vs. not authenticity of rules and integration or segregation of rules in grammar practice are considerable issues which are needed to be reviewed.

### Contextualization of Grammatical Rules

In the DSP, grammar exercises are mechanical and practiced in isolated sentences although Mitchell and Lynn (1993) assert that "while awareness of the rule is helpful, it alone will not suffice" (p. 14). In the ISP, communication is important



and grammar practice is provided in contexts. The use of contextualized activities with their emphasis on both form and meaning encourages creativity and makes use of grammatical knowledge which is essential in applying the rules to appropriate situations and give the students the opportunity of seeing grammatical rules in different situations and modes. Exercises incorporating a linguistic context, such as a reading or listening text are more effective and popular than those involving decontextualized sentences.

A research study involving 50 learners of English for General Purposes at Ealing College, London indicated the preference for the contextualized grammar exercises within a reading passage. Exercises within isolated sentences were ranked as the three least interesting. Repeating the same structure in isolated sentences was less stimulating than doing the exercises accompanied by a linguistic context (Fortune, 1992).

Integration of language skills allows for continuity in the teaching/learning program (Fortune, 1992). Lee (1995, p. 325) agrees with Fortune (1992) by arguing that "contexts have to be provided for tasks, so that learners can practice the language skills in a natural, meaningful and relevant way". Thus, non-linguistic contexts, isolated sentences, create an artificial and demotivating type of exercises for the language learners.

#### Authenticity of Texts and Tasks

Authenticity of texts and tasks are current issues in the presentation and practice stages of language instruction. Authentic texts are often regarded as more

interesting than textbook materials because they can be more up-to-date and related to everyday issues and activities. According to Breen (1985), the nature, type and topic of a text determine whether it is authentic. He illustrates his argument by pointing out a poem in a coursebook might be used for teaching purposes.

A research study has shown that the majority of students prefer non-textbook materials (Bacon & Fiennemann, 1990; Lee, 1995). Young (cited in Lee, 1995) argues that from the learners' viewpoint, authentic materials are motivating, interesting and useful by saying that when learners read an authentic text their prior knowledge, interest and curiosity make it easier for them to engage with it. Both task and text authenticity are essential in development of language skills since in real life situations it is very common to use more than one language skills.

A survey was conducted among the university level students who learn foreign language in the U.S. After a course in which report writing, oral presentation and project work carried out by the students who were asked for their opinions of the materials and tasks they used, most of them gave positive affective and cognitive responses which explain that the authentic materials and tasks were both interesting and useful (Lee, 1995).

#### Sequencing of Rules in Presentation and Practice Stages

Grammatical rules are presented in some order during conscious learning process. Several reasons for sequencing have been suggested. First, natural order was suggested as the correct basis for sequencing (Krashen, Madden & Bailey, 1975; Krashen 1982). In other proposals frequency of occurrence, grammatical simplicity

and utility were included (Dubin & Olshtain, 1986). Although these options are discussed in the literature, the majority of books are designed according to linguistic simplicity, going from less complex to more complex structures (Krashen, 1982).

Second language acquisition theory does not suggest an exact learning sequence; however, it suggests a set of rules that can be learned. In a conscious learning process, simplicity has an important place because only learnable rules can be taught. The natural order studies can provide some of the information about what is acquired early and what is acquired late although second language learners show some individual variation (Krashen, 1982).

Grammar-Translation, Cognitive-Code, Total Physical Response and Direct methods are grammatically sequenced and there is an order from 'easy' to 'complex'. Each lesson introduces certain rules, and these rules dominate the lesson. In addition, There is a clear sequence in Audio-Lingual teaching, based on linguistic simplicity, but also influenced by frequency and predictions of difficulty by contrastive analysis and Suggestopedia seems to depend on the net of grammatical structures. There is an order for a certain amount of grammar during the first one month. On the other hand, there is no deliberate sequencing for certain structures in Natural approach since the focus of the class is not on the presentation of grammar (Krashen 1982).

### Error Correction

Error correction is another controversy regarding conscious learning. According to Henrickson (Krashen, 1982), 'five fundamental questions' should be

reviewed as follows:

1. Should errors be corrected?
2. If, so, when should errors be corrected?
3. Which learner errors should be corrected?
4. How should learner errors be corrected?
5. Who should correct learner errors?

(p. 116)

Four of the questions have answers in second language acquisition theory and Krashen (1982) predicts that “if error correction is done according to the principles described, it will be effective” (p. 117). According to the second language acquisition theory, learning does not become acquisition, conscious mental representation of a rule should be changed in case an error occurs. In other words, the learner should be informed about that current version of a conscious rule is wrong and errors should be corrected.

Hendrickson and Birckbichler (cited in Krashen, 1982) suggest that in general, error correction should not be limited to ‘manipulative grammar practice’, but during ‘communicative practice’ errors may be tolerated. If the goal is learning, form (grammatical rules) should be focused on and errors should be corrected on written work and grammar exercises, but not in free conversations as suggested in ‘Natural Approach’ by Terrell (1983). Instead of trying to correct all errors, only global errors, errors that cause the most unfavorable reactions and errors that occur frequently should be given priority.

Lastly, Hendrickson (cited in Krashen 1982) reviews several methods of error

correction. “Providing the correct form (direct correction) and the discovery (inductive) approach” (1982, p. 118) are the two most widely used forms of error correction. He states that some research shows that direct correction is not particularly effective; students who have had direct correction of their oral and written output do not produce fewer errors (Hendrickson, 1978; Krashen 1982). This may be due to the lack of consistent and systematic correction (Allwright, 1975; Cohen & Robbins, 1976; Krashen, 1982).

Krashen (1982) admits that “even under the best conditions, correcting the simplest rules, with the most learning-oriented students, teacher corrections will not produce results that will live up to the expectations of many instructors” (p. 119). How much the second language performers improve accuracy by consulting the conscious grammar can be decided by looking at how good learners are at self-correction of their own linguistic output. Self correction efficiency varies according to conditions and performers, Houck (1982) notes that self-correction as opposed to other correction or correcting someone else’s output, is the most valid way correcting errors since this is the real performance of conscious grammar.

### Evaluation of Rules

Discrete point testing is used in the DSP while integrative testing is used in the ISP. Discrete point testing is described by Hughes (1989) as “the testing of one element at a time, item by item” (p. 16). For instance, this kind of exam may include a series of items each testing a particular item. In contrast to discrete point testing, integrative testing requires the testee to combine many language elements in a task.

Writing a composition or taking notes in a lecture both require many skills. Moreover, writing a composition evaluates actual writing ability unlike multiple-choice questions asking about the organization of a passage. Asking grammar questions in isolated sentences does not evaluate grammar performance directly since it is not a real life situation (Hughes, 1989).

### Conclusion

In foreign language situations, grammar knowledge is a 'conscious' process and it is gained through presentation and practice of rules. There are different approaches to grammar instruction. The sequencing of rules, instructional materials, grammar presentation and practice and error correction are the controversial issues which change from one language program to another in the literature.

## CHAPTER 3 METHODOLOGY

### Introduction

The purpose of this study is to identify the differences and similarities in grammar instruction in DSP and ISP at the Department of Basic English in Osmangazi University, Eskisehir. This chapter discusses the method of data collection and the analysis of the data.

This comparative study was carried out with reference to curriculum documents, textbook activities and instructors' opinions. The concern of this thesis is to find the answers to the following questions:

1. What are the differences and similarities between the DSP and ISP with respect to grammar instruction in terms of the presentation, practice, correction and evaluation stages?
2. What are the differences and similarities between the DSP and ISP with respect to curriculum documents?
3. What are the differences and similarities between the DSP and ISP with respect to textbook designs and language learning activities?

The comparative study was carried out with reference to the curriculum documents and instructional materials; instructors' opinions. Data were collected from different sources for the purposes of triangulation since this is an important issue for a descriptive study. As Cohen and Manion (1989) note, it is important "to map out or to explain more fully, the richness and complexity of human behaviour by studying it from more than one stand point" (p. 86).

## Subjects

Thirteen instructors participated in this study at the Department of Basic English in Osmangazi University, Eskisehir. Ten of the thirteen instructors, who taught grammar in the DSP in the 1995-1996 and ISP in the 1996-1997 academic years, answered both questions about the DSP and ISP in the questionnaires that have the same items that were written in order to gather data about grammar instruction in the DSP and ISP. Three of the thirteen instructors answered the questions about the ISP since they taught only in the ISP.

Although there is no rule regarding the optimum size of the population, all instructors who taught grammar in the DSP and ISP were given the questionnaires to have a better representation of the whole population. In the 1996-1997 academic year, only ISP exists, but DSP does not exist anymore at the Department of Basic English in Osmangazi University.

## Materials

### Curriculum Documents

During the survey of the documents, all available written materials were obtained from the administration in order to support the data gathered through the questionnaires. The objectives of programs, syllabuses designed for each program, and mid-terms as evaluation materials were compared with respect to content and format in the DSP and ISP. As mentioned previously it was intended to triangulate data by using the analysis of curriculum documents.



### Textbooks and Activities

The grammar textbook, *English in Use* (Spankie, 1986), used previously in the DSP and a textbook, *Highlight* (Vince & Thornbury, 1994), used in the ISP were evaluated in terms of contents maps according to general material organization formats.

Ten activities which were chosen at random from lessons of each textbook were analyzed in the light of the following questions: "Is there a focus skill in the activity?", "What combination of skills are practiced to carry out the activity? (Reading, writing, listening, speaking, grammar)", "At what level are the language skills practiced?"

### Questionnaires

Two questionnaires that have the same items were administered to the instructors to gather data about grammar instruction in the DSP and ISP. The questionnaires consisted of two parts with one question in part A and forty three questions in part B. In part A, the instructors were asked check the choices that reflect their teaching experience. In part B, the instructors were asked to rate the given statements from one to five with 1= never, 2= rarely, 3= sometimes, 4= usually and 5= always. Part B on the questionnaires was developed from a model checklist consisting of questions about grammar instruction, designed by Richards (cited in Carter, 1990) to gather information about grammar instruction related to the following categories which are developed by the researcher.

1. Presentation stage
2. Practice stage
3. Correction stage
4. Evaluation stage

Table 9 presents the subjects of the questions and their numbers on the questionnaires.

Table 9

Types and Number of Questions

Type	Item number
<b>Presentation Stage</b>	
Instruction language in presentation stage	I1, I2; D1, D2
No formal grammar instruction	I3; D3
Deductive/Inductive grammar teaching	I4, I5; D4, D5
Materials used in presentation stage	I6, I7, I8, I9, I10, I11, D6, D7, D8, D9, D10, D11
Relating and revision of the known rules	I12, I13, D12, D13
No relation to the known rules	I14; D14
<b>Practice Stage</b>	
Types of activities	I15, I16, I17, I18, I19, D15, D16, D17, D18, D19
Contextualization	I20, I21; D20, D21
Authenticity	I22; D22
Materials used in practice stage	I23, I24, I25, I26, I27, I28, D23, D24, D25, D27, D28
<b>Correction Stage</b>	
Immediate and direct/indirect correction	I29, I31; D29, D31
Later and direct/indirect correction	I30, I32; D30, D32
No error correction	I33; D33
Type of correction	I34, I35, I36; D34, D35, D36
<b>Evaluation Stage</b>	
Instruments of evaluation	I37, I38, I39, I40; D37, D38, D39, D40
Integrative/discrete exam	I41, I42; D41, D42
No formal evaluation	I43; D43

Note. I= Integrated skills program questionnaire, D= Discrete skills program questionnaire

### Procedure

The questionnaires were piloted on five MA TEFL students at Bilkent University. The required changes were made according to the comments made by the MA TEFL students. A second pilot-testing was conducted with some of the instructors who did not participate in the study at Osmangazi University after making necessary explanations about the format and the content of the questionnaire. The questions were edited before being administered to the thirteen instructors at the Department of Basic English at Osmangazi University, Eskisehir. The thirteen instructors were administered questionnaires about the DSP and ISP. Ten of the subjects answered both questions about discrete and ISP. During the administration, the researcher was at the university to answer the possible questions that might be raised by the instructors.

The grammar textbooks used in the two different programs were evaluated in terms of activities that were chosen randomly. Ten activities from the textbook of DSP and ten activities from the textbook of ISP were analyzed in terms of the segregation and integration of the skills with grammar. Curriculum documents were compared in terms of the content and the format of the two programs.

### Data Analysis

Quantitative methods of data analysis were used in this comparative study. Data were analyzed to provide answers to the research question that seeks the differences and similarities in grammar instruction in the DSP and ISP at the Department of Basic English at Osmangazi University.

In textbook analysis, skills to be practiced in the sample activities were displayed in the tables for the DSP and ISP. The instructor responses to the questions on the two sets of questionnaires were converted into percentages having calculated the frequencies. The percentages were displayed in comparative tables which present the results both in the DSP and ISP. While presenting the results of questionnaires, four categories, presentation, practice, correction and evaluation, were taken into consideration and displayed in different tables.

To sum up, the differences and similarities of grammar instruction in two programs were compared according to the data collected from the instructors, curriculum documents and textbooks used in the two programs.

## CHAPTER 4 ANALYSIS OF DATA

### Introduction

The aim of this thesis was to find the differences and similarities in grammar instruction in the DSP and ISP at the Department of Basic English, Osmangazi University. In this study, it was hypothesized that in the two programs, there are some differences and similarities in grammar instruction in terms of curriculum design, instructional materials, language activities and the presentation, practice, correction and evaluation stages.

Thirteen instructors participated in this study at the Department of Basic English in Osmangazi University, Eskisehir. Ten of the thirteen instructors, who taught grammar in the DSP in the 1995-1996 and ISP in the 1996-1997 academic years, answered both questionnaires about the DSP and ISP. Three of the thirteen instructors responded to the questionnaires regarding the ISP since they taught grammar only in the ISP.

### Analysis of Curriculum Documents

The existing and previous objectives, syllabuses and exams were examined and compared in terms of differences and similarities in the grammar instruction in the DSP and ISP.

### Analysis of Objectives

According to an informal interview with the administrator, it became apparent that there was no formal statement of Department's objectives. For this reason the 1995-1996 academic year syllabus and grammar exams were analyzed to identify the possible objectives. Although listening, reading, speaking and writing syllabuses and exams were surveyed in terms of grammar emphasis, no evidence was found.

Instead of grammar, language sub-skills, such as skimming, listening for specific purposes were emphasized in these syllabuses and exams.

The DSP grammar objectives were stated in the instructor guide book as follows:

- Students should be able to transfer active sentences to passive sentences.
- Students should be able to use reported speech.
- Students should be able to differentiate gerunds and infinitives.
- Students should be able to compare simple present and present perfect tenses.
- Students should be able to use causatives.

The ISP Grammar Objectives:

- Students should be able to understand native speech at a normal speed and interacting with native speakers clearly and grammatically.
- Students should be able to comprehend the reading texts, expressing emotions, ideas and impressions grammatically and comprehensively.
- Students should be able to comprehend grammatical sentences in listening passages.
- Students should be able to write grammatical sentences.
- Students should have the knowledge of contractions in daily life English.

Some of the grammar objectives in the DSP and ISP are presented and compared in Table 10.

Table 10

Comparison of the DSP and ISP Objectives in Terms of Grammar

DSP Features	ISP Features
Specific	General
Grammar Committee Oriented	Program Development Unit Oriented
Separate	Integrated with Other Language Skills
* Grammar Emphasis in the Program	* Grammar Emphasis in the Program
No Formal Statement	Formal Statement
<u>Note.</u> * = Similarity	

As seen in Table 10, although grammar was emphasized in the two programs, there were considerable differences between the two programs in terms of grammar objectives. Depending on the syllabus design, grammar was treated as a separate skill in terms of objectives in the DSP, but it was integrated with other language skills in the ISP. The grammar objectives were stated by the Program Development Unit in the DSP and Grammar Committee in the ISP. Similarly, grammar was focused in both the DSP and ISP. Although grammar objectives were not stated in formal statements in the DSP as opposed to the ISP, as can be inferred from the DSP textbook and syllabus, grammar objectives were more specific than the grammar objectives that were stated in formal statements in the ISP.

Syllabus Analysis

The syllabus design of the DSP was different from that of the ISP. The following syllabuses provided information about the place of grammar in the DSP and ISP. Since grammar was treated as a discrete skill in the DSP, there was a

separate grammar syllabus. Table 11 presents a weekly program which was chosen from the DSP listening, speaking, reading and writing syllabuses randomly to see whether grammar was emphasized implicitly or explicitly.

Table 11

The DSP Syllabuses

Syllabus Type		Syllabus Design
Listening Syllabus		Topical
Fall Semester		
Week 2	Hours (1-2) "Using a Bank" p. 2-3 Hours (3-4) "Following Instructions about a Sport" p. 4-5 Hours (5-6) "Leaving a Message" p. 6-7	
Speaking Syllabus:		
Fall Semester		Functional
Week 4	Hours (1-2) Thanking People p. 34-45 Hours (3-4) Apologizing p. 46-55	
Reading Syllabus:		
Spring Semester		Topical
Week 3	Hours (1-3) "The Chili Cookoff" p. 62-75 Hours (4-6) "It's the Real Life" p. 78-91	
Writing Syllabus:		
Fall Semester		Skills-based
Week 7	Hours (1-3) Explaining by Showing Similarities and Differences p. 67-77 Hours (4-6) Explaining by Showing Cause and Effect p. 85-90	
Grammar Syllabus:		
Fall Semester		Structural
Week 12	Hours (1-2) Much, Many, Little, Few, No, Not, neither.....nor, either.....or, so do I, neither do I Hours (3-4) Question Tags Hours (5-6) Demonstratives (This, That, These, Those), one, some, any, none, anyone, someone.	



As seen from Table 11, grammar was emphasized only in the DSP grammar syllabus which was designed to the structures. Table 12 presents a week from the ISP main integrated syllabus, technical English and video syllabuses.

Table 12

The ISP Syllabuses

Syllabus Type		Syllabus Design
Main Integrated Syllabus		Topical
Spring Semester		
Week 6	Hours (5-16) UNIT 4 "Crime Wave"	
	Hours (1-7) UNIT 5 "Playing the Game"	
Technical English Syllabus:		Topical
Week 2	Hours (1-3) 'Coordinate in Plain' and 'Zinc'	
Video Syllabus:		Topical
Week 7	Hours (1-3) "Fugitive"	

Table 12 revealed that since the DSP was integrated, technical English and video syllabuses were designed to cover the topics. In the following table, the DSP and ISP syllabuses are compared in terms of grammar.

Table 13

Comparison of the DSP and ISP Syllabuses in Terms of Grammar

DSP Features	ISP Features
Grammar Committee Oriented	Program Development Unit Oriented
Structural	Topical
Separate	Integrated with Other Language Skills
* Weekly	* Weekly
Randomly Distributed to Weekdays	Depending on the Textbook Sequence
For All Levels (Elemen., Inter., Upp. Inter.)	Different for Each Level (Elemen., Inter., Upp. Inter.)
Six-Hour Plan	Nineteen-Hour Plan (Elemen.)
	Sixteen-Hour Plan (Inter.)
	Thirteen-Hour Plan (Upp. Inter.)
Six Hours a Week	Five Hours a Week
* Based on the Textbook	* Based on the Textbook
<u>Note.</u> * = Similarity, Elemen= Elementary, Inter= Intermediate Level, Upp. Inter.= Upper Intermediate Level	

The analysis of the DSP listening, speaking, reading and writing syllabuses revealed that grammar was not emphasized in other language classes. In all these classes, sub-language skills were emphasized. For example, such sub-skills were developed in listening, speaking, reading, writing and grammar according to syllabus and textbook designs as follows:

- Listening Class: listening for gist, listening for specific information, listening by focusing on intonation and stress as part of meaning, recognize stress and intonation in the listening passages
- Speaking Class: discussion, describing place, people and object, giving an unprepared speech, speaking fluently and accurately
- Reading Class: reading for gist, reading for specific points, speed-reading, reading aloud, silent reading
- Writing Class: paragraph writing, essay writing, formal/informal writing, letter

writing

Grammar Class: comparison of structures, transform one structure to another and making grammatical sentences

The DSP syllabus designs reveal that listening and reading syllabuses are topical, speaking syllabus was functional, writing syllabus was skill-based and grammar syllabus was structural. Grammar was the only class which was designed around the language structures and grammar was emphasized.

The DSP grammar syllabus was grammar committee oriented while the ISP syllabus was Program Development Unit oriented. The separate grammar syllabus was structural in the DSP whereas the integrated ISP syllabus was situational. Grammar classes were distributed to weekdays randomly in the DSP, but in the ISP each language section, such as reading, grammar or listening followed each other according to the textbook sequence. Both the DSP and ISP syllabuses were designed based on the textbook and they were weekly plans.

Another important difference between the DSP and ISP syllabuses was drawn from the teaching hours and levels. The DSP grammar syllabus was designed for all proficiency levels while there were three different syllabuses for each level of proficiency in the ISP. Grammar was a six-hour syllabus in the DSP while thirteen, sixteen and nineteen-hour syllabuses in the ISP. Grammar had similar importance with six hour-teaching in the DSP and with five hour-teaching in the ISP (see Appendix B & C).

writing

Grammar Class: comparison of structures, transform one structure to another and making grammatical sentences

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### Analysis of Written Exams

Written exams, such as mid-terms, finals and pop-quizzes which were the essential evaluation materials in both the DSP and ISP, were analyzed. The following questions taken from the DSP and ISP exemplified exam designs.

#### The DSP Mid-Term Questions:

1. Transform the following active sentences into passive sentences.

(Transformation)

- Nobody will know the result of the election until late tonight.

2. Rephrase the sentences below with an appropriate passive construction.

(Rephrasing)

- People say that one elephant is killed every minute of the day. (It is.....)

3. Choose the passive form of the sentence given. (multiple-choice)

- They nominated him the captain of the class.

a) He was nominated the captain of the class.

b) The captain of the class was nominated.

c) The class was nominated by the captain.

- 4- Choose the correct form. (choosing)

- "Things That Go Bump in the Night"

. . . when we heard someone move/ moving (1) about noisily in the house next door-  
the house was semi-detached. . . Then we heard men's voices talk/talking (2) softly.. .

5. Complete the sentences with the correct form of the verb. (Completion)

- A: Do you want (go) .....out for something to eat?

B: No, I don't really feel like (eat).....out.

6. Choose the correct option. (multiple-choice)

- I am accustomed.....everday.

a) working    b) to working    c) to work    d) of working    e) from working

7. Rewrite these sentences using the personal (have) causative forms. (rephrasing)

- She asked them to show her dozens of pairs of shoes.

Different mechanical questions such as transformation, rephrasing, multiple-choice, choosing, completion and rephrasing, which were exemplified in Richards and Rodgers' (1986) book, were used in the DSP mid-terms.

#### The ISP Mid-Term Questions:

1. Choose the best answer.

- .....that the president's economic policy will help curb inflation. (multiple-choice)

a) It is hoped    b) The hope    c) Hoping    d) To hope

2. That attractive man .....my cousin who visiting us from France. (multiple-choice)

a) is    b) who is    c) he is    d) is he

3. A: I thought there was a cinema here. (multiple-choice)

B: There .....be. It is now a supermarket.

a) should    b) used to    c) would have to    d) was used to

As seen from the DSP mid-term items, all were multiple-choice questions which were considered as mechanical drills. Table 14 presents the results of the comparison of the DSP and ISP mid-terms in terms of grammar.

Table 14

Comparison of the DSP and ISP Written Exams in terms of Grammar

DSP Features	ISP Features
Similar for All Levels till the 4th Mid-term	Differnt for each Level till the 5th Mid term
Totally 7 Exams	Totally 6 Exams
* Similar Final Exam for each Level	* Similar Final Exam for each Level
* Discrete Point Exam	* Discrete Point Exam
Grammar Committee Oriented	Testing Unit Oriented
Based on the Textbook	Based on the Textbook and Supplementaries
Recognition-Based and Production-Based	Recognition-Based
Based on Restatement, Transformation, Replacement, Completion, Expansion, Multiple-Choice Techniques	Multiple-Choice
Direct and Indirect Testing	Indirect Testing
Independent/Separate Grammar Exam	One of the Independent/Separate Sections of the Whole Exam, Consisting of 6 Sections, Listening, Vocabulary, Grammar, Reading, Technical English
Contextualized	Not Contextualized
<u>Note.</u> * = Similarity	

As Table 14 indicates, the DSP and ISP had some similarities and differences in grammar testing. The DSP exams were used for all levels, elementary, intermediate and upper-intermediate till the fourth exam. After the fourth exam, each level received different exams. In contrast to the DSP, exams were different for each level till the last exam in the ISP. Both programs gave the same final exam for each level of students at the end of the year as a proficiency exam.

The exams prepared by the Grammar Committee in the DSP and Testing Unit in the ISP were discrete point exams where one element at a time were evaluated instead of combining many language elements in the in the completion of a task. Although in both programs the textbook was the main source, supplementary handouts prepared by the Materials Development Unit were also used as the base for

grammar testing. A variety of testing techniques, such as completion, multiple-choice, rephrasing and transformation which gave the opportunity for recognition and production were used in the DSP. On the other hand, only recognition questions were used in the ISP.

Since the DSP exams were discrete point, they were also indirect. For example, grammar was not a component of a writing testing to be evaluated. While the DSP grammar exam was a separate exam, grammar was one of the separate sections of a whole exam. In the DSP exams, there were more contextualized questions than the ISP exams.

### Analysis of Instructional Materials

Textbook design and activities in terms of instructional materials were examined and compared in terms of differences and similarities in the grammar instruction in the DSP and ISP.

### Textbook Analysis

In the DSP 'English in Use' (Spankie, 1986) and in the ISP 'Highlight series' (Vince & Thornbury, 1994) were used as textbooks in grammar instruction during language teaching process at the Department of Basic English at Osmangazi University. These two textbooks have been examined in terms of material design format which was reviewed in the literature. To be able to analyze the textbooks, textbook designs in terms of the contents map, sample lesson plans and textbook



activities were examined. Table 15 presents one chapter from the content maps of the DSP textbook.

Table 15

The DSP Textbook Design 'English in Use' (Spankie, 1986)

Unit	1
	Expressing present time, the simple present and the present progressive Non-progressive verbs

Table 16

The ISP Textbook Design 'Highlight series' (Upper Intermediate) (Vince & Thornbury, 1994)

Unit	1
Topic	Food for Thought
Language	Present simple, present continuous contrasts with present simple and 'be used to'
Activities	Describing eating habits, comparing kinds of food, giving cooking instructions
Reading	Your breakfast is on the ceiling: reading for specific points The crimes of eating: reading for gist and for specific points
Listening	Restaurants: listening for gist and for specific points Fast food: listening for specific points
Writing	Personal and national eating habits
Speaking	Role play: arguing about convenience foods, describing a restaurant, discussing fast food
Vocabulary	Word fields: food, countables, meaning and sound
Phonology	Stress and intonation in questions, weak forms and, some, of

The DSP textbook was originally designed to the linear shape which was usually adopted discrete element content, particularly grammar or structures according to the contents map. There was a sequencing and grading of grammatical points from simple to complex since the first unit starts with simple present and

progressive and finishes with adjective and adverbial clauses. Notions, functions, topics and other language skills were not mentioned in the syllabus. Each grammatical point or structure was introduced once, so the syllabus did not show cyclic characteristic.

The ISP textbook was designed around the topics. However, it was the linear shape due to the emphasis was on the sequence of grammatical points. Since many grammatical points were reintroduced in different manifestations at various times, it was a cyclic format. In addition to topical, linear and cyclic format, under each language skill, sub-skills were focused as well.

#### Activity Analysis

The following activities which were taken from the DSP textbook, 'English in Use' (post-elementary to post-intermediate (1986) and ISP textbook 'Highlight series' (Upper Intermediate) (Vince & Thornbury, 1994) were compared in terms of the grammar rule practiced, type of activity such as mechanical-restatement or communicative-information gap, dialogue, focus skill, such as speaking, listening, reading, writing, vocabulary or grammar and skills practiced.

#### 1-A) The DSP Activity (p. 35)

Insert the appropriate forms of *have to* or *has to* as required.

1. Every Friday John.....stay at an hotel in town as he finishes work very late.
2. The present office is too small so he .....look for another.

1-B) The ISP Activity (p. 12)

‘I went to the football on saturday.’

‘I didn’t’.

‘why not?’

‘I had to study’.

Practice the dialogue using these prompts:

the beach

work

a disco

paint the garage. . .

The grammar activities such as completion, rephrasing, replacement and transformation which were chosen randomly from the DSP textbook ‘English in Use’ (post-elementary to post-intermediate (1986) mostly exemplified mechanical drills while dialogue, problem-solving, pair-work and discussion activities which were taken from the ISP textbook represented both mechanical and communicative drills. In Tables 17, 18, 19, 20, 21, 22, 23, 24, 25, 26, the DSP and ISP textbook activities are compared in terms of grammar. Table 17 presents a textbook activity that practices “have to/has to” and “had to”.

Table 17

Comparison of the DSP and ISP Textbook Activities in terms of Grammar (1)

Activity	Rule Practiced	Activity Type	Focus Skill	Steps	Skills Practiced & Level
DSP	Have to, Has to,	Completion	G	Ss fill-in the blanks with appropriate forms of obligation.	G Production
ISP	Had to	Dialogue	S	Ss write a dialogue Ss practice the dialogue that include past form of 'have to'.	G, S W Production

Note. DSP= Discrete skills program, ISP= Integrated Skills Program, W= Writing, G= Grammar, S= Speaking

Table 17 displays that “have to/has to” and “had to” were practiced in a completion drill consisting isolated sentences in the DSP textbook whereas they were practiced in a dialogue in the ISP textbook. Speaking, where grammar was practiced with the writing was focused in the ISP activity while grammar was the only language sub-skill practiced in the DSP. In the DSP activity, students produced answers at word/phrase level while in the ISP, they produced answer at speech level.

## 2-A) the DSP Activity (p. 250)

Insert the correct form- *Simple Present* or *Present Continuous*

1. Elephants (not eat) meat.
2. Now he is old and (stay) at home.

## 2-B) The ISP Activity (p. 7)

Put a verb into each space in the most suitable form, *present simple* or *present continuous*.

*have, chew, think, feel, imagine, sit, see, watch . . .*

At the moment I (1).....in the kitchen and I (2).....my brother eating a pizza.

I (3) .....really jealous. You (4)....., I (5).....problemswith my weight . . .

Table 18 presents a textbook activity that practices “the simple present and the present continuous tense”.

Table 18

Comparison of the DSP and ISP Textbook Activities in terms of Grammar (2)

Activity	Rule Practiced	Activity Type	Focus Skill	Steps	Skills Practiced & Level
DSP	Simple Present vs Present Continuous	Transformation	G	Ss change the verbs in the brackets with appropriate forms of simple present or present continuous.	G Production
ISP	Simple Present vs Present Continuous	Completion	G	Ss complete the passage with the appropriate forms of simple present and present continuous.	G, R Production

Note. DSP= Discrete skills program, ISP= Integrated Skills Program, R= Reading, G= Grammar

As can be seen from Table 18, the grammatical rules “the simple present and the present continuous” were presented in a transformation drill in the DSP and completion drill in the ISP. Although the rules were introduced in grammar activity in both the DSP and ISP, grammar was practiced with reading in the DSP activity while grammar was only skill practiced in the ISP activity. Mechanical drills were used to practice the rule in the two textbooks. In the both activities, the answers were produced at word/phrase level.

## 3-A) The DSP Activity (p. 251)

Insert the correct form of *simple present tense*.

1. John never (come) early.
2. Maria (live) with her aunt in London.

## 3-B) The ISP Exercise (p. 38)

Imagine a job. What is your daily routine? Tell other students your daily routine.

Can they guess your job?

Table 19 presents a textbook activity that practices “the simple present tense”.

Table 19

Comparison of the DSP and ISP Textbook Activities in terms of Grammar (3)

Activity	Rule Practiced	Activity Type	Focus Skill	Steps	Skills Practiced & Level
DSP	Simple Present	Transformation	G	Ss change the verbs in the brackets with appropriate forms of simple present.	G Production
ISP	Simple Present	Discussion, Problem-solving	S	Ss tell other students their daily routine by using simple present tense Ss guess the job described through listening to the other students giving clues	G, S, L Production

Note. DSP= Discrete skills program, ISP= Integrated Skills Program, G= Grammar, S= Speaking, L= Listening

Table 19 reveals that the simple present tense was practiced in the transformation drill, which was the distinctive feature of audiolingual approach, in the DSP textbook. On the other hand, discussion as a social interaction and problem-

solving as a functional activities were used for practicing simple present tense in the ISP textbook. Grammar was only practiced skill in the DSP activity while grammar, speaking and listening were practiced in the ISP activity. Transformation were produced at word/phrase level in the DSP while discussion was a speech level production in the ISP.

#### 4-A) The DSP Activity (p. 70)

Put in suitable *possessive pronouns* and *possessive adjectives* to completethe sense in these pairs of sentences. Whereever possible use more than one combination.

1. ....house is round the corner.....is in the next street.
2. This isn't .....book. The red one is.....

#### 4-B) The ISP Activity (p. 26) (pre-intermediate)

Replace the underlined nouns with *possessive adjectives* or *pronouns*.

1. a) Is this Carol's watch?
- b) Are these Jack's?

Table 20 presents a textbook activity that practices “the possessive adjectives and pronouns”.

Table 20

Comparison of the DSP and ISP Textbook Activities in terms of Grammar (4)

Activity	Rule Practiced	Activity Type	Focus Skill	Steps	Skills Practiced & Level
DSP	Possessive Adjectives and Pronouns	Completion	G	Ss complete the sentences with the suitable forms of possessive adjectives and pronouns.	G Production
ISP	Possessive Adjectives and Pronouns	Replacement	G	Ss changes the underlined nouns with the possessive pronouns and adjectives.	G Production

Note. DSP= Discrete skills program, ISP= Integrated Skills Program, G= Grammar

Possessive adjectives and pronouns were practiced in the grammar activity which required completion of the blanks in the DSP and replacement of the nouns with the pronouns or possessive adjectives in the ISP. Both the DSP and ISP activities were mechanical. Production occurred at word/phrase level in the two activities.

#### 5-A) The DSP Activity (p. 91) (Pre-intermediate)

Restate each of the following negative sentences twice, using *comparative adjectives* in their construction.

(A pony is not so large as a horse. a) A pony is smaller than a horse.

b) A horse is larger than a pony.)

1. February isn't so long as March.

2. Winter isn't so warm as summer.



## 5-B) The ISP Activity (p. 56)

Compare these three portable computers.

Which has got a bigger memory- A or B?

Which is more expensive? A or C?

	Model A	Model B	Model C
Memory	1024Kb	640Kb	768Kb
Price	\$880	\$1330	\$650

Which do you think is better? Why?

Discuss with your partner and write a comparison paragraph.

I think .....is better. It has got a bigger.....than.....,but it is.....than.

Table 21 presents a textbook activity that practices “comparisons”.

Table 21

Comparison of the DSP and ISP Textbook Activities in terms of Grammar (5)

Activity	Rule Practiced	Activity Type	Focus Skill	Steps	Skills Practiced & Level
DSP	Comparisons	Resatement	G	Ss rewrite the sentences by using the comparative forms of adjectives.	G Production
ISP	Comparisons	Information Transfer, Pair work	W	Ss read the information given and discuss what they read. Then, write a guided comparison paragraph.	R, S, G, W Production

Note. DSP= Discrete skills program, ISP= Integrated Skills Program, G= Grammar, R= Reading, S= Speaking, W= Writing

Students rewrote the sentences by using the comparisons in the grammar

activity in the DSP textbook while they transferred what they read to a comparison

paragraph in pairs which required communicative ability as well. Reading, speaking, and writing were practiced together in the ISP activity while only grammar was emphasized in the DSP activity. Production was at sentence level in restatement activity in the DSP while it was at passage level in the ISP activity.

6-A) The DSP Activity (p. 221)

Insert '*gerunds*' in the brackets after the verb '*like*'.

1. I don't like (travel) by night if I can avoid it.
2. Mary likes (go) to the seaside in summer.

6-B) The ISP Activity (p. 83)

Read part of a letter from Mark. Underline the expressions that mean '*like*' and '*don't like*'.

*.....19 years old and I am in my first year of a theatre design course, I am also keen on music, and my favorite instrument is the guitar. I'm not that keen on sports and I think football is really boring. But, I am quite interested in swimming.*

Can you complete Debbie's letter using '*like*' instead of the expressions from Mark's letter?

*.....at Hamilton Teacher's College. My hobbies include tennis and horseriding- I .....sports generally. But, I.....studying . . .*

Table 22 presents a textbook activity that practices “gerunds (likes/dislikes)”.

Table 22

Comparison of the DSP and ISP Textbook Activities in terms of Grammar (6)

Activity	Rule Practiced	Activity Type	Focus Skill	Steps	Skills Practiced & Level
DSP	Gerunds (likes/Dislikes)	Transformation	G	Ss write the appropriate form of the verbs following 'like'.	G Production
ISP	Gerunds (likes/Dislikes)	Information Transfer,	R	Ss read the information given in the letter related to gerunds and transfer the knowledge to another piece of letter.	R, G, W Production

Note. DSP= Discrete skills program, ISP= Integrated Skills Program, G= Grammar, R= Reading, W= Writing

As can be seen from Table 22, students practiced gerunds in the grammar activity by using the verbs given in the parentheses in the DSP activity, but they had to transfer what they read in the first letter to another. Information transfer was carried out through reading, grammar and writing skills in the ISP activity and through only grammar skill in the DSP activity. In both activities, answers were produced at word/phrase level.

#### 7-A) The DSP Exercise (p. 313)

Insert the correct form of the verbs in brackets so that the sentences express real *conditions* and consequences.

1. If I (see) John, I'll tell him your news.
2. If you (want) me to, I (come) for a walk with you.

7-B) The ISP Exercise (p. 67) (Pre-intermediate)

What if it rains?

If it rains we'll go to the museums.

Think of things that may happen on a holiday. Think of what you will do and discuss in the class.

Table 23 presents a textbook activity that practices “conditionals”.

Table 23

Comparison of the DSP and ISP Textbook Activities in terms of Grammar (7)

Activity	Rule Practiced	Activity Type	Focus Skill	Steps	Skills Practiced & Level
DSP	Conditionals	Transformation	G	Ss transfer the verbs into the appropriate forms related to conditionals.	G Production
ISP	Conditionals	Class Discussion	S	Ss discuss what problems they may come across on a holiday and how they solve by using conditionals.	S, G Production

Note. DSP= Discrete skills program, ISP= Integrated Skills Program, G= Grammar, S= Speaking

As can be seen from Table 23, the DSP activity required transformation, which was a mechanical drill. The ISP activity however, required class discussion which was a typical social interaction activity. In the ISP textbook, speaking was the focus skill where grammar was practiced while grammar was the only focus skill for the rule practice in the DSP textbook. In the DSP, answer was produced at word/phrase level while in the ISP, production level was speech.

## 8-A) The DSP Exercise (p. 346)

Turn the following into *reported speech*. Remember to use a variety of introducing verbs so as to avoid monotonous repetition.

1. 'I often see Peter in the evenings' she said.
2. 'We sometimes play bridge with Tom and Mary', they replied.

## 8-B) The ISP Exercise (p. 84)

Read the news item below. What did Tom actually say when he was interviewed according to this article? Reconstruct a interview between Tom and the reporter.

Tom, 20, from London told me that he had come to Stonehenge 'for a laugh' with some friends. When I asked him whether he had taken part in any violence, he refused to answer. He explained that he did not want his parents to know that he had been there.....

Table 24 presents a textbook activity that practices "reported speech".

Table 24

Comparison of the DSP and ISP Textbook Activities in terms of Grammar (8)

Activity	Rule Practiced	Activity Type	Focus Skill	Steps	Skills Practiced & Level
DSP	Reported Speech	Restatement	G	Ss rewrite the sentences by changing into reported speech.	G Production
ISP	Reported Speech	Information Transfer	R	Ss write an interview after reading the news.	R, G, W Production

Note. DSP= Discrete skills program, ISP= Integrated Skills Program, G= Grammar, R= Reading, W= Writing

Table 24 indicates that students changed the sentences into reported speech in the DSP activity while they produced an interview by reading the article. In other words, reading, writing and grammar were used for practicing reported speech in the ISP activity. However, they practiced only grammar while restating the given sentences in the DSP activity. Answers were produced at sentence level in the DSP and at passage level in the ISP.

9-A) The DSP Exercise (p. 205)

Rewrite these sentences using the *have* and *get*.

1. I'll persuade John to help me carry my bags.
2. You can't make the milkman walk up six flights of stairs everyday.

9-B) The ISP Exercise (p. 66)

The notes below describe what is wrong with the building. Will it be suitable for the uses in your list? Read the notes and describe what needs doing before it can be used and why?

Most rooms very small, not enough light in them. (small windows), but have a large fireplace.....

Table 25 presents a textbook activity that practices "causatives".

Table 25

## Comparison of the DSP and ISP Textbook Activities in terms of Grammar (9)

Activity	Rule Practiced	Activity Type	Focus Skill	Steps	Skills Practiced & Level
DSP	Causatives	Restatement	G	Ss rewrite the sentences by using the causatives.	G Production
ISP	Causatives	Information Transfer, Discussion	S	Ss reads the passage to describe orally what needs doing before it can be used	R, G, S Production

Note. DSP= Discrete skills program, ISP= Integrated Skills Program, G= Grammar, R= Reading, S= Speaking

Table 25 displays that the ISP students used information transfer where grammar was practiced through reading and speaking while the DSP students used grammar as a focus skill in the activity. Causatives were practiced through mechanical drills in the DSP textbook whereas they were introduced through communicative drills in the ISP textbook. Students produced answers at sentence level in the DSP while at speech level in the ISP.

## 10-A) The DSP Activity (p. 97)

Fill in the blanks using *how*, *what* or *what a*.

1. ....charming person she is!
2. ....kindly she talks to everybody!

## 10-B) The ISP Activity (p.106)

Use one of the words listed below to complete each sentence.

*hardly, quickly, bad, hard, fast*

1. There may soon be .....any wild animals left in the world.
2. Elephant hunters travel in .....vehicles and use automatic weapons.

Table 26 presents a textbook activity that practices “adjectives and adverbs”.

Table 26

Comparison of the DSP and ISP Textbook Activities in terms of Grammar (10)

Activity	Rule Practiced	Activity Type	Focus Skill	Steps	Skills Practiced & Level
DSP	Adjectives and Adverbs	Completion	G	Ss complete the appropriate adjective or adverb	G Production
ISP	Adjectives and Adverbs	Completion	G	Ss complete the appropriate adjective or adverb	G Production

Note. DSP= Discrete skills program, ISP= Integrated Skills Program, G= Grammar

In Table 26, there is another substantial difference seen in the activities where adjectives and adverbs were practiced. Grammar was the only focus skill in both the DSP and ISP activities. Students completed the sentences with the appropriate forms of the adjectives and adverbs, so both the DSP and ISP students used mechanical drills for the rule practice. Answers were produced at word/phrase level in the two program.

The results of the activity analysis showed that the DSP and ISP textbooks used mechanical and communicative drills for grammar practice. The following table presented the distribution of mechanical and communicative drills in the DSP and ISP textbooks. Activities which practiced the same grammatical rule were chosen from the two textbooks randomly. Since long transcripts were required to be



able to have the idea about the activity, listening activities were not covered in this analysis on purpose.

Table 27

Distribution of Mechanical and Communicative Activities in the DSP and ISP

n (DSP)=10	DSP		ISP	
n (ISP)=10	f	%	f	%
Mechanical	10	100	3	30
Communicative	0	0	7	70

Note. DSP= Discrete Skills Program, ISP= Integrated Skills Program, f= Frequency, %= Percentage, n= Subject

As Table 27 revealed that the DSP textbook was always (100%) based on the mechanical drills while in the ISP textbook in addition to mechanical drills (30%), communicative drills were mainly used (70%). Instead, in the DSP, answers were produced at different levels, such as speech, word/phrase, sentence and passage while in the DSP, word/phrase or sentence levels were primarily used for answers.

#### Analysis and Interpretation of Questionnaire Results about the Procedure

Class presentation, practice, correction and evaluation in terms of procedure were surveyed and compared in terms of differences and similarities in the grammar instruction in the DSP and ISP.

The questionnaire given to the instructors consisted of two parts investigating perceived differences and similarities in grammar instruction in the DSP and ISP.

Part A asked about the teaching experience of the instructors. In part B, the

instructor responses to instructional practices which were elicited through a rating of 1 to 5 were analyzed. The two parts regarding the DSP and ISP were analyzed separately and then the results were compared. The instructor responses were converted into percentages for each item and the percentages were analyzed in relation to the presentation, practice, correction and evaluation stages in grammar instruction.

In the presentation stage, instruction language, L1/L2, deductive vs inductive grammar teaching and instructional materials were assessed. In the practice stage, learning activities, tasks and experiences, type of contexts in which grammar practice was provided and the materials used in the practice part of grammar instruction were analyzed. The correction stage was analyzed in relation to the type of student error corrections and who did the corrections. In the evaluation stage, evaluation materials and the type of evaluation techniques were determined in the two programs. Scaled responses for statements were one for 'never', two for 'rarely', three for 'sometimes', four for 'usually' and five for 'always'.

The first part of the questionnaire, which contained the same items for the DSP and ISP, asked about the teaching experience background of the participants. Table 28 introduced the language teaching experience years of the subjects.

Table 28

Language Teaching Experience of Instructors

n= 13	Language Teaching Experience (Years)					
	-1	1-3	4-6	7-9	10-12	12+
Instructors	1	5	4	1	2	0

Note. -1= less than one year, 12+= more than twelve years

The experience of the instructors who answered the questionnaires for the DSP and ISP extended from -1 year to 12+ years. The general distribution of teaching experience was centered around 1 and 6 year-experience. Comparison of

Grammar Instruction in the DSP and ISP

Grammar instruction in the DSP and ISP were compared in terms of the presentation, practice, correction and evaluation stages.

Presentation Stage

The first analysis concerned the presentation stage of grammar instruction in the DSP and ISP. Fourteen items were covered in this stage and the percentages of instructor responses with regard to grammar presentation in the DSP and ISP were displayed in Table 29.

Table 29

Instructor Responses in Relation to Grammar Presentation in the DSP and ISP

	Rating Scale (%)									
	1		2		3		4		5	
n (DSP)= 10										
n (ISP)= 13	Never		Rarely		Sometimes		Usually		Always	
Category	DSP	ISP	DSP	ISP	DSP	ISP	DSP	ISP	DSP	ISP
Native language	20	31	0	46	40	23	40	0	0	0
Target language	0	0	10	0	50	15	40	31	0	54
Implicit teaching	80	23	20	54	0	8	0	0	0	15
Deductive teaching	30	0	60	0	10	0	0	46	0	54
Inductive teaching	0	23	0	15	0	46	40	8	60	8
Coursebook	0	0	0	0	0	23	30	46	70	31
Reference book	0	15	0	62	40	23	60	0	0	0
Supplementary handouts	30	0	50	0	20	0	0	8	0	92
Audio-visual materials	80	0	20	0	0	8	0	46	0	46
Technical English materials	90	0	10	0	0	8	0	54	0	38
Tables and diagrams	0	31	0	46	30	23	50	0	20	0
Revision of the known rules	0	0	0	0	20	15	40	15	40	70

Note. DSP- discrete skills program, ISP- integrated skills program, n= Subject, %= Percentage

According to Table 29, the percentages under 5 which means 'always' reveal that no instructor always spoke only in the target language. In the DSP, however, 54% of the instructors always did so. In the DSP, the responses to translating

examples of the teaching point into native language in order to be certain that the students understand indicated that 40% of the instructors usually used translation in the DSP, whereas in the ISP no instructor usually did. As can be seen from Table 29, in both the DSP and ISP no instructor always translated the examples of the teaching point.

Implicit grammar instruction, where grammar is not taught explicitly, but students were guided to discover the rule without formal grammar teaching, was not used by 80% of the instructors in the DSP and 23% of the instructors in the ISP. In other words, the responses differed in implicit teaching that 15% of the instructors always guided the students in discovering the grammatical rule without teaching grammar formally in the ISP while no instructor did so in the DSP. The highest percentages displayed that in the ISP, teaching a grammatical point inductively was always favored by 54% of the instructors unlike 60% of the instructors in the DSP who rarely preferred inductive grammar teaching. Similarly, another significant difference can be inferred from responses to deductive grammar teaching. A relatively high percentage of instructors (60%) in the DSP always tended to teach grammar deductively, whereas only 8% of the instructors always favored deductive grammar teaching in the ISP.

Concerning the instructional materials, the coursebook was considered as the main source by 70% of the instructors in the DSP and 31% of the instructors in the ISP. The use of a reference book in addition to the coursebook while presenting the rules shows striking divergency in grammar instruction in the DSP and ISP. A reference book was usually used by 60% of the instructors in the DSP while it was

rarely used by 62% of the instructors in presenting grammar in the ISP. Table 29 showed the difference in the use of supplementary handouts both in the DSP and ISP. Supplementary handouts were always the second important source according to 92% of the responses in the ISP, yet this source was rarely employed by 50% of the instructors and it was not used by 30% of the instructors in the DSP. The instructor responses stated that audio-visual materials (80%) and technical English materials (90%) had no important place in the DSP. On the other hand, the data indicated that grammar was presented through audio-visual materials (46%) and technical English materials (54%) in the ISP.

The instructor responses showed 46% of the instructors 'rarely' used diagrams and write formulas to present a new grammatical point in the ISP whereas the highest percentage under 4 which shows 50% of the DSP instructors 'usually' favored putting grammatical rules into formulas and diagrams.

In relation to revision of relevant grammatical points, it was reported that 70% of the ISP instructors always revised the known rules beforehand. Forty percent (40%) of the DSP instructors did so.

### Practice Stage

The second analysis is related to the practice stage of grammar instruction in the DSP and ISP. Fourteen items were covered in this stage and the percentages of instructor responses with regard to grammar practice in the DSP and ISP were displayed in Table 30.

Table 30

Instructor Responses in Relation to Grammar Practice in the DSP and ISP

	Rating Scale (%)									
	1		2		3		4		5	
n (DSP)= 10										
n (ISP)= 13	Never		Rarely		Sometimes		Usually		Always	
Category	DSP	ISP	DSP	ISP	DSP	ISP	DSP	ISP	DSP	ISP
Pair work	90	0	10	15	0	39	0	31	0	15
Mechanical drills	0	0	0	31	20	46	30	8	50	15
Free conversations	20	0	70	0	10	15	0	54	0	31
Dialogues	70	23	30	23	0	8	0	38	0	8
Group work	70	0	30	23	0	15	0	54	0	8
Meaningful contexts	40	0	50	0	10	0	0	31	0	69
Isolated sentences	10	0	0	46	0	23	30	23	60	8
Authentic tasks	60	0	30	0	10	8	0	54	0	38
Coursebook	0	0	0	0	0	0	20	69	80	31
Reference book	40	31	50	69	10	0	0	0	0	0
Supplementary handouts	20	0	60	0	10	0	10	8	0	92
Workbook	60	15	40	39	0	46	0	0	0	0
Worksheets	50	0	10	8	30	23	10	15	0	54
Technical English materials	80	0	10	0	10	23	0	54	0	23

Note. DSP- discrete skills program, ISP- integrated skills program, n= Subject, %= Percentage

As the responses to item 1 which concerned pair work in the activities indicated, the instructors used pair work usually (31%) and always (15%) in the ISP, but in the DSP pair work was usually or always used by no instructor. When the two percentages for the DSP and ISP were compared, the results show that mechanical drills were always preferred by 50% of the instructors in the DSP; however, 46% of the instructors sometimes used mechanical drills in the ISP. 31% of the ISP instructors always used free conversations while no DSP instructor did so. Another substantial difference was in the responses given to the item about dialogues and role-plays. 38% of the instructors usually used dialogues in the ISP whereas 70 % of the DSP instructors did not favor. Similarly, group work was the favorite activity usually employed by 54% of the instructors in the ISP while it was not preferred by 70% of the instructors in the DSP.

As Table 30 displayed, grammar practice was never provided by 40% of the DSP instructors in meaningful contexts and instead of contextualized exercises grammar practice was always provided 60% of instructors in isolated sentences in the DSP. On the contrary, 69% of the ISP instructors always preferred contextualized exercises and 46% of them rarely favored isolated sentences. Thus, it can be inferred that 54% of the ISP instructors usually used authentic tasks and materials while 60% of them did not in the DSP.

When the materials are taken into consideration, it can be observed that the percentages regarding coursebook use were similar in that a coursebook was usually employed by 69% of the ISP instructors and always by 70% of the DSP instructors. This was an indication that coursebook use has always an important place in the DSP



and usually in the ISP for grammar practice. The results of data indicated a substantial similarity in the use of source books for grammar practice in that no instructors (0%) always or usually used a reference book in both the DSP and ISP. Similarly, practice was never provided in a reference book by 40% of the instructors in the DSP and 31% of the instructors in the ISP. Another significant difference drawn from the analysis of the data is that supplementary handouts were rarely used by 60% of the DSP instructors to give the students the opportunity of extensive practice of a teaching point while 92% of the ISP instructors favored supplementaries as a second essential source in addition to the coursebook. According to the table highest percentages were as follows: 60% of the instructors in the DSP never used workbooks and 50% of the instructors in the ISP never used worksheets for grammar practice in the DSP. When it was compared with the results of ISP, the highest percentages under choice 3 and choice 5 indicate that 46% of the instructors sometimes used workbook and 54% of the instructors always used worksheets as two important sources for grammar practice. Concerning technical English materials, it was another source employed by the ISP instructors for grammar practice. The results of the data in the DSP was different from that of the ISP in that 54% of the ISP instructors usually used technical materials for grammar practice whereas 80% of the DSP the instructors did not.

### Correction Stage

The third analysis is related to correction stage in grammar instruction in the DSP and ISP. Eight items were covered in this stage and the percentages of

instructor responses with regard to grammar correction in the DSP and ISP were displayed in Table 31.

Table 31

Instructor Responses in Relation to Grammar Correction in the DSP and ISP

	Rating Scale (%)									
	1		2		3		4		5	
	Never		Rarely		Sometimes		Usually		Always	
Category	DSP	ISP	DSP	ISP	DSP	ISP	DSP	ISP	DSP	ISP
Immediate and direct	0	0	0	8	10	38	60	46	30	8
Later and direct	10	0	20	39	70	46	0	15	0	0
Immediate and indirect	10	5	60	0	20	8	10	62	0	23
Later and indirect	50	8	30	23	20	38	0	8	0	23
No error correction	80	30	20	8	0	62	0	0	0	0
Teacher correction	0	0	0	0	0	23	60	69	40	8
Peer correction	0	0	50	0	40	69	10	31	0	0
Self correction	20	0	70	31	10	31	0	38	0	0

Note. DSP- discrete skills program, ISP- integrated skills program, n= Subject, %= Percentage

As can be seen from Table 31, mistakes were usually corrected directly and immediately (60%) in the DSP as opposed to later and direct correction which was used sometimes (70%) in the DSP. Interestingly, when the ISP instructors were asked what type of corrections they preferred, 46% of the instructors answered by saying usually direct and immediate corrections while 15% of them usually corrected

mistakes directly, but later. Another striking conclusion drawn from the results was that there was no certain tendency for later and immediate correction to correct mistakes in two programs. Of the ten instructors, 10% never corrected mistakes immediately and indirectly whereas 50% never corrected mistakes later and indirectly in the DSP. In other words, when the DSP instructors chose indirect correction, they preferred immediate to later correction. Similarly, immediate and indirect correction was usually chosen by 62% of the instructors while later and indirect correction was preferred by only 8% of the instructors in the ISP. As the results displayed in the above table indicate the significant difference is that the ISP instructors mostly favored indirect and immediate correction while the DSP instructors favored direct and immediate correction. The highest percentage displayed that eighty percent (80%) of the DSP instructors never tolerated mistakes whereas only 30% of the ISP instructors did so.

The results of the data revealed that corrections were always made by 40% of the instructors in the DSP, but that 8% of the instructors in the ISP. Peer correction was usually encouraged by 10% of the DSP instructors while it was encouraged by 31% of the ISP instructors. As table 31 displayed, peer correction was used more in the ISP than the DSP. Self correction was encouraged by 38% of the ISP instructors; however, it was usually encouraged by no instructor in the DSP.

### Evaluation Stage

The last analysis is concerned with the evaluation stage in grammar instruction in the DSP and ISP. Six items were covered in this stage and the

percentages of instructor responses with regard to grammar evaluation in the DSP and ISP were displayed in Table 32.

Table 32

Instructor Responses in Relation to Grammar Evaluation in the DSP and ISP

%	Rating Scale (%)									
	1		2		3		4		5	
n (DSP)= 10	Never		Rarely		Sometimes		Usually		Always	
n (ISP)= 13	Never		Rarely		Sometimes		Usually		Always	
Category	DSP	ISP	DSP	ISP	DSP	ISP	DSP	ISP	DSP	ISP
Pop-quizzes	0	0	40	0	60	0	0	21	0	79
Mid-terms	0	0	0	0	0	0	10	8	90	92
Assignments	0	0	20	0	10	23	60	69	10	8
Integrative exam	100	100	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Discrete point exam	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	100	100
No evaluation	100	100	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0

Note. DSP- discrete skills program, ISP- integrated skills program, n= Subject, %= Percentage

According to 79% of the ISP instructors, pop-quizzes were always employed to evaluate students' performance in grammar, however, in the DSP no instructor always used pop-quizzes and class activities. The answers to the items regarding the pop-quizzes in the ISP indicate a significant difference in that pop-quizzes were always accepted as important evaluation techniques by the ISP instructors while they did not play an important role in grammar instruction in the DSP. Mid-terms were always (90%) used as the main evaluation technique in the DSP. In addition to mid-

terms, assignments were the second source which were usually (60%) conducted as a class evaluation technique in the DSP. The ISP was similar to the DSP in terms of the use of mid-terms and assignments as important evaluation techniques. Mid-terms were always used for evaluation according to the reports of 92% of the ISP instructors. The highest percentage under response 4 meant that assignments were usually (69%) used to evaluate students' grammar performance in class.

As can be seen from Table 32, the highest percentages under responses 5 (100%) showed that grammar was evaluated in discrete grammar units in both the DSP and ISP. In other words, 100% of the DSP and ISP instructors reported that grammar was never evaluated integratively in mid-terms and finals. Besides, the findings displayed another similarity that grammar evaluation was always made formally in both the DSP and ISP. In other words, according to 100% of the instructors in both programs, grammar was directly evaluated in the exams.

## CHAPTER 5 CONCLUSION

### Introduction

The aim of this study was to identify the differences and similarities in grammar in the discrete skills (DSP) and integrated skills programs (ISP) at the Department of Basic English in Osmangazi University. The study included the analysis of objectives, the curriculum documents, instructional materials, textbook activities, class observations and the instructors' opinions.

### Overview of the Study

Grammar instruction is a critical issue in language teaching. While the integration of language skills is preferred in language teaching in many universities, in some other universities a discrete skills program is favored. As a premise for this study, integration of grammar with other language skills was presumed to cause some differences and similarities in grammar teaching.

Differences and similarities in the discrete skills and integrated skills based syllabus design were sought in terms of curriculum documents, instructional materials and teaching process. Although the grammar rules presented in DSP and ISP did not change radically, grammar was integrated with other language skills instead of being an independent grammar course at the Department of Basic English in Osmangazi University, Eskisehir.

Ten instructors who formerly taught grammar in the DSP and who are now teaching English in the ISP responded to both questions about the two programs and in addition to ten, three instructors who are now teaching in the Foreign Languages

Department volunteered for this study by answering the questions about the ISP.

During the research study, curriculum documents and the instructional materials and textbook activities of the DSP and ISP were examined, the instructors were asked to describe the two programs in terms of grammar instruction. The following section presents the conclusions drawn from the data results and provides interpretations.

### Discussion of Findings

A survey of the grammar instruction in the DSP and ISP and a comparative analysis revealed that there are some differences and similarities in the two programs in terms of curriculum documents, instructional materials, textbook activities and teaching procedure of grammar in the two programs.

The analysis of the curriculum documents revealed that grammar is treated as a discrete skill in terms of objectives, syllabuses and written exams. Grammar is regarded as crucial and automatic control of basic structures and sentence patterns is fundamental in the DSP while communicative skills are essential in addition to structural proficiency in formal statements of objectives in the ISP. These objectives are realized through grammatical/structural syllabus in the DSP and topical syllabus in the ISP which are suggested by Brown (1995). Interestingly, grammar is focused in both structural and topical syllabuses (Dubin & Olshtain, 1986). In the presentation of grammatical structures, the textbook sequence is followed in the DSP and ISP syllabuses. Similarly, grammar is a separate exam that includes only grammatical structures in the DSP while grammar is tested with all language skills in the same written exam in the ISP. Grammar testing is the same in the DSP and ISP in that form-based/mechanical questions are asked to test grammar knowledge in the

two programs. In other words, grammar is a discrete point exam in the DSP and ISP programs. Various kinds of drill and pattern-practice exercises which are typically used in the audio lingual method (Richards and Rodgers, 1986) are used in the DSP while only multiple-choice questions are used in the ISP.

The textbook analysis showed that the DSP and ISP textbooks are different in material design format. The DSP textbook is designed to the linear shape in which there is a sequential ordering of grammatical points while the ISP textbook is designed to the topical, linear and cyclic formats together which are noted by Dubin and Olshtain (1986). There is a sequence from simple to complex (Krashen, 1982) in both the DSP and ISP.

The analysis of textbook activities revealed that mechanical drills are preferred by the DSP while communicative drills are mostly used in the ISP in addition to mechanical drills (Richards & Rodgers, 1986). Grammar practice differ in both programs in that isolated sentences are used in the DSP while in the ISP, contextualized exercises, which provide real life skills integration, are used for grammar practice. Thus, language recycling is provided through different language skills in several combinations as mentioned by Oxford (1990). On the other hand, mechanical drills are inevitable as much as communicative drills to transfer what is known from short-term to long-term memory as Ur (1988) suggested.

The analysis of the grammar teaching procedures revealed some differences and similarities in terms of PPCE grammar instruction model of Richards (cited in Carter, 1990). In the presentation stage, the responses given to the item regarding the target language and native language used in grammar instruction indicated that the native language was favored by the DSP instructors and the target language was



preferred by the ISP instructors. According to Mitchell and Redford (1993), the integration of the basic language skills can be used to provide meaningful and simple input at the beginning of grammar instruction instead of native language for explanations in the class. Similarly, Scott and Randall (1992, p. 358) prefer target language in class by saying that “switching from one language to another is confusing and breaks the flow of meaning” and the teacher’s role is to present the grammatical concept in the target language using a minimum amount of complicated terminology and making necessary modifications.

Findings showed a substantial difference in grammar teaching. The DSP instructors taught grammar deductively while the ISP instructors taught grammar inductively. Despite the different preferences of the DSP and ISP instructors, deductive and inductive grammar teaching were used in both programs. As suggested by Elsenstein (1987 cited in Fortune, 1992) “both deductive and inductive presentation can be useful depending on the cognitive style, level of the learner and the structure to be presented” (p. 78).

Another difference was found in materials. A reference book, audio-visual and technical English materials were usually used by the ISP instructors unlike the DSP instructors. That is, supplementary handouts, audio-visual and technical English materials were the important sources for grammar presentation according to the ISP instructors in addition to the coursebook. The use of tables and diagrams was another difference in the two programs that they were usually used in the DSP as opposed to the ISP.

Findings revealed another striking similarity in grammar presentation which is related to the revision of the known rules while explaining a new teaching point.

Both the DSP and ISP instructors gave the importance to the revision of the known rules while teaching grammatical rules. Thus, the result supported Rutherford's (1987) findings in that learning grammar is proposed to happen progressively as a system, hence it is better to learn grammar in terms of a cyclic progression: "revisiting, developing and enriching what one has already learned, elaborating new and related knowledge as one goes, and building a sense of the interrelatedness of choices" (p. 19).

Another important difference stems from the type of activities used in the practice stage of grammar. As Chalkers (cited in Bygate, Tonkyn & Williams, 1994) states the characteristics of today textbook "... sections may be devoted to pair work or projects, to games or problem solving" (p. 19), pair work, free conversations, dialogues and group work were favored by the ISP instructors unlike the DSP instructors. On the contrary, mechanical drills which are suggested by Richards and Rodgers (1986) were always preferred by the DSP instructors to transfer what is known to long-term memory easily.

The results of the study also revealed that while grammar practice was used in isolated sentences in the DSP, contextualization and authenticity of the tasks were the two characteristics of the practice stage in the ISP as Reads (1990 cited in Mitchell and Redmond, 1993) advocates that tasks and activities are not performed in isolation, but are closely related and dependent on each other and Lee (1995) argues tasks should be provided in contexts to practice the language skills in a natural way.

Concerning the materials, findings indicated another important difference that supplementay handouts, worksheets and technical English materials were used by the ISP instructors whereas the DSP instructors always used a course book to give the

students a chance to practice the language. The result supported Richards and Rodgers (1986) that argue Situational Language Teaching, which is favored in the DSP, is dependent upon a textbook while a wide variety of materials have been used to support Communicative Language Learning which is preferred in the ISP. The similarity drawn from the results was that workbooks were paid no attention by the DSP and ISP instructors.

It becomes apparent from the findings that the DSP and ISP differ in that errors in grammar were usually corrected by the DSP instructors immediately and directly whereas the ISP instructors usually preferred immediate but indirect correction in class. Findings also revealed another interesting difference in that while the DSP instructors rejected to tolerate errors, the ISP instructors sometimes tolerated errors during grammar instruction. It is said that learners should be informed about that current version of a conscious rule is wrong and errors should be corrected immediately (Krashen, 1982). This is the current situation in the DSP contrary to what Hendrickson and Birckbichler (1978, 1977 cited in Krashen, 1982) suggest in terms of error correction in that during communicative practice errors may be tolerated as can be seen in the ISP.

The responses to the items asking about who corrects the errors in class gathered around usually for 'teacher correction' in both DSP and ISP. In the ISP, peer correction was encouraged by the instructors while in the DSP, peer and self correction were not encouraged and teacher correction remained the only way to correct grammar errors. Krashen (1982, p. 119) admits that "even under the best conditions, correcting the simplest rules, with the most learning-oriented students, teacher corrections will not produce results that will live up to the expectations of

many instructors” and Houck (1982) notes that self-correction as opposed to other correction or correcting someone else’s output, is the most valid way correcting errors since this is the real performance of conscious grammar. These opinions explain why self-correction and peer correction are used in addition to the teacher correction.

Mid-terms can be considered as an important similarity in the DSP and ISP that it is the major evaluation technique used as formal testing to get feedback in the DSP and ISP. In addition, exercises were assigned by the DSP and ISP instructors as informal testing to get feedback as suggested by Ur (1988) in her PEPT teaching model. On the contrary, findings indicated that two programs were different in that pop-quizzes were always used in the ISP, however, the DSP instructors sometimes used pop-quizzes to evaluate grammar performance of the students in class.

Results indicated another similarity in terms of grammar evaluation through discrete point exam which is defined by Hughes (1989, p. 16) as the testing of one element at a time, item by item as opposed to the integrative exam which requires the testee to combine many language elements in a task. For instance, writing a composition or taking notes in a lecture both require many skills (1989).

As stated above there are some differences and similarities in the DSP and ISP in grammar instruction in terms of the presentation, practice, correction and evaluation stages.

### Pedagogical Implications

The main purpose of this research study on grammar instruction was to describe the current ISP situation and compare the possible differences that occur between the DSP and the ISP. The results of this study may lead instructors to have a clear understanding of what an integration of the DSP and the ISP involves and why they need it. Using different language skills specially for those who are not interested or are unsuccessful at one language skill may increase motivation and success in language learning.

In addition, instead of isolated sentences grammar can be taught through meaningful contexts and more authentic tasks. Free conversations, pair and group work activities can be alternatives for mechanical drills to decrease inhibitions and avoid just memorization of the rule.

### Limitations of the Study

This study is limited to the Department of Basic English at Osmangazi University. The other universities in which the discrete and integrated skills program have been applied were not included in the study. Other interpretations of the DSP and ISP in different universities in Turkey could be analyzed.

The triangulation of data could be widened by providing with the opinions of the students. Differences and similarities in the discrete skills and integrated skills programs in terms of other language skills would give a broad understanding of the two programs.

An item-by-item analysis provided descriptive results of the two programs in terms of the grammar instruction. The results of the comparative analysis showed

that there are some similarities and differences in grammar instruction in terms of syllabus design, objectives, instructional materials, textbook activities and grammar teaching in the class in the discrete skills and integrated skills program.

### Suggestions for Further Studies

As a further study, an experimental study can be applied to support the analysis of the data results with the performance scores of the students. This research study can be developed through class observations that will show the differences and similarities between what instructors reported and the delivery. Other Turkish universities that have preparatory schools and use the DSP or ISP, or both can be taken as samples for another comparative study. Questionnaires can be distributed to the students to get their opinions about the comparison of the DSP and ISP in terms of grammar instruction. Other language skills, such as reading, writing, speaking and listening can be examined instead of grammar in future studies.

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## APPENDIX A

Dear Colleagues,

This questionnaire has been prepared for research purposes. I am doing research on 'grammar instruction in the discrete skills and integrated skills programs at Osmangazi University'. Your answers will equip me with the information that will be used in the research study.

Let me assure you information given to me confidential. None of it will be released in any way that will permit the identification of individuals who participate. Cooperation, of course, is voluntary. However, I hope you will seriously consider taking part in this study.

Thank you very much for your cooperation.

Instructor : Nurcan Parlakyıldız

**QUESTIONNAIRE**

**A-** Please, answer the questions about grammar instruction in the discrete skills and integrated skills programs.

1. How long have you been teaching English ?

- |   |   |
|---|---|
| <input type="checkbox"/> less than one year | <input type="checkbox"/> 1-3 years                          |
| <input type="checkbox"/> 4-6 years          | <input type="checkbox"/> 7-9 years                          |
| <input type="checkbox"/> 10-12 years        | <input type="checkbox"/> over 12 year ( please specify )... |

**B- PRESENTATION STAGE**

Would you rate the following items by circling the one that you think best suits you.

Scale of responses :

1. never	2. rarely	3. sometimes	4. usually	5. always
----------	-----------	--------------	------------	-----------

In presenting a grammar teaching point for the first time I

1. translate examples of the teaching point to be certain that the students understand.

Discrete	1	2	3	4	5	Integrated	1	2	3	4	5
skills						skills					

2. speak only in the target language, but modify the structure, vocabulary and speed so that the students can understand easily.

Discrete	1	2	3	4	5	Integrated	1	2	3	4	5
skills						skills					

3. give the students several examples of the teaching point, guide them in discovering the grammatical rule, but do not formally teach grammar (implicit teaching).

Discrete	1	2	3	4	5	Integrated	1	2	3	4	5
skills						skills					

4. give the students several examples of the teaching point before supplying them with the grammatical rule (inductive teaching).

Discrete	1	2	3	4	5	Integrated	1	2	3	4	5
skills						skills					

5. present the students the teaching point before supplying them with the examples (deductive teaching).

Discrete	1	2	3	4	5	Integrated	1	2	3	4	5
skills						skills					

6. grammar points are taught to the students accompanied by a coursebook.

Discrete	1	2	3	4	5	Integrated	1	2	3	4	5
skills						skills					

7. a reference book

Discrete	1	2	3	4	5	Integrated	1	2	3	4	5
skills						skills					

## 8. supplementary materials ( handouts...etc. )

Discrete skills	1	2	3	4	5	Integrated skills	1	2	3	4	5
-----------------	---	---	---	---	---	-------------------	---	---	---	---	---

## 9. audio-visual materials ( tape, tv, video, pictures, realia, flash cards, cartoons. posters...etc.)

Discrete skills	1	2	3	4	5	Integrated skills	1	2	3	4	5
-----------------	---	---	---	---	---	-------------------	---	---	---	---	---

## 10. technical English materials

Discrete skills	1	2	3	4	5	Integrated skills	1	2	3	4	5
-----------------	---	---	---	---	---	-------------------	---	---	---	---	---

## 11. use tables and diagrams to formulate the grammatical structures

Discrete skills	1	2	3	4	5	Integrated skills	1	2	3	4	5
-----------------	---	---	---	---	---	-------------------	---	---	---	---	---

## 12. review with the students relevant, previously presented grammar points.

Discrete skills	1	2	3	4	5	Integrated skills	1	2	3	4	5
-----------------	---	---	---	---	---	-------------------	---	---	---	---	---

**C- PRACTICE STAGE**

In practising a grammar teaching point I use the following learning activities, tasks and experiences

## 1. pair work ( learner to learner )

Discrete skills	1	2	3	4	5	Integrated skills	1	2	3	4	5
-----------------	---	---	---	---	---	-------------------	---	---	---	---	---

2. mechanical drills ( question and answer, chain drill, substitution drill, completion, fill-in-the blank drills...etc. ) ( teacher to learner / learner to teacher )

Discrete	1	2	3	4	5	Integrated	1	2	3	4	5
skills						skills					

3. free conversations ( teacher to learner / learner to learner )

Discrete	1	2	3	4	5	Integrated	1	2	3	4	5
skills						skills					

4. dialogues, role-plays ( learner to learner )

Discrete	1	2	3	4	5	Integrated	1	2	3	4	5
skills						skills					

5. group work ( learner to learner )

Discrete	1	2	3	4	5	Integrated	1	2	3	4	5
skills						skills					

6. grammar practice is provided in meaningful contexts

Discrete	1	2	3	4	5	Integrated	1	2	3	4	5
skills						skills					

7. isolated sentences

Discrete	1	2	3	4	5	Integrated	1	2	3	4	5
skills						skills					

8. authentic tasks / materials

Discrete	1	2	3	4	5	Integrated	1	2	3	4	5
skills						skills					

9. grammar practice is provided in a coursebook

Discrete skills	1	2	3	4	5	Integrated skills	1	2	3	4	5
-----------------	---	---	---	---	---	-------------------	---	---	---	---	---

10. a reference book

Discrete skills	1	2	3	4	5	Integrated skills	1	2	3	4	5
-----------------	---	---	---	---	---	-------------------	---	---	---	---	---

11. supplementary handouts

Discrete skills	1	2	3	4	5	Integrated skills	1	2	3	4	5
-----------------	---	---	---	---	---	-------------------	---	---	---	---	---

12. workbook

Discrete skills	1	2	3	4	5	Integrated skills	1	2	3	4	5
-----------------	---	---	---	---	---	-------------------	---	---	---	---	---

13. worksheets

Discrete skills	1	2	3	4	5	Integrated skills	1	2	3	4	5
-----------------	---	---	---	---	---	-------------------	---	---	---	---	---

14. technical English materials

Discrete skills	1	2	3	4	5	Integrated skills	1	2	3	4	5
-----------------	---	---	---	---	---	-------------------	---	---	---	---	---

## **D- CORRECTION STAGE**

1. Corrections are made immediately and directly

Discrete skills	1	2	3	4	5	Integrated skills	1	2	3	4	5
-----------------	---	---	---	---	---	-------------------	---	---	---	---	---



## 2. later and directly

Discrete skills	1	2	3	4	5	Integrated skills	1	2	3	4	5
-----------------	---	---	---	---	---	-------------------	---	---	---	---	---

## 3. immediately and indirectly

Discrete skills	1	2	3	4	5	Integrated skills	1	2	3	4	5
-----------------	---	---	---	---	---	-------------------	---	---	---	---	---

## 4. later and indirectly

Discrete skills	1	2	3	4	5	Integrated skills	1	2	3	4	5
-----------------	---	---	---	---	---	-------------------	---	---	---	---	---

## 5. no error correction

Discrete skills	1	2	3	4	5	Integrated skills	1	2	3	4	5
-----------------	---	---	---	---	---	-------------------	---	---	---	---	---

## 6. grammar mistakes are corrected by teachers

Discrete skills	1	2	3	4	5	Integrated skills	1	2	3	4	5
-----------------	---	---	---	---	---	-------------------	---	---	---	---	---

## 7. peers ( classmates )

Discrete skills	1	2	3	4	5	Integrated skills	1	2	3	4	5
-----------------	---	---	---	---	---	-------------------	---	---	---	---	---

## 8. learners ( self-correction )

Discrete skills	1	2	3	4	5	Integrated skills	1	2	3	4	5
-----------------	---	---	---	---	---	-------------------	---	---	---	---	---

**E- EVALUATION STAGE**

1. evaluation is made through pop-quizzes

Discrete skills	1	2	3	4	5	Integrated skills	1	2	3	4	5
-----------------	---	---	---	---	---	-------------------	---	---	---	---	---

2. mid-terms

Discrete skills	1	2	3	4	5	Integrated skills	1	2	3	4	5
-----------------	---	---	---	---	---	-------------------	---	---	---	---	---

3. assignments

Discrete skills	1	2	3	4	5	Integrated skills	1	2	3	4	5
-----------------	---	---	---	---	---	-------------------	---	---	---	---	---

4. evaluation is made through integrative exams

Discrete skills	1	2	3	4	5	Integrated skills	1	2	3	4	5
-----------------	---	---	---	---	---	-------------------	---	---	---	---	---

5. discrete point exams

Discrete skills	1	2	3	4	5	Integrated skills	1	2	3	4	5
-----------------	---	---	---	---	---	-------------------	---	---	---	---	---

6. grammar evaluation is not made formally

Discrete skills	1	2	3	4	5	Integrated skills	1	2	3	4	5
-----------------	---	---	---	---	---	-------------------	---	---	---	---	---

## APPENDIX B

## DSP Syllabus

PREP SCHOOL  
GROUPS B & C  
FIRST SEMESTER  
GRAMMAR SYLLABUS

## WEEK 1 (2-6 October 1995)

Hours 1-2 : *Placement Test*  
Hours 3-4 : *Introduction to the course*  
Hours 5-6 : *Warm-up*

## WEEK 2 (9-13 October 1995)

Hours 1-2 : *The Present Continuous Tense*  
Hours 3-4 : *English In Use 243-244-245, QUIZ*  
Hours 5-6 : *The Present Simple Tense, have-has*

## WEEK 3 (16-20 October 1995)

Hours 1-2 : *English In Use 245-246-247-248-249-250-251-252 (Comparison)*  
Hours 3-4 : *Pronouns: Pers., Ref., Emph., Reciprocal (EIU 42-51), QUIZ*  
Hours 5-6 : *The Past Simple Tense, Irregular Verbs*

## WEEK 4 (23-27 October 1995)

Hours 1-2 : *EIU 267-268-269-270-271-272-273, QUIZ*  
Hours 3-4 : *The Past Continuous Tense,*  
Hours 5-6 : *EIU 274-275-276-277, Comparison*

## WEEK 5 (30 October-03 November 1995)

Hours 1-2 : *The Present Perfect Tense, EIU 253-263*  
Hours 3-4 : *Still, yet, already, EIU 98-102, QUIZ*  
Hours 5-6 : *Handout (Revision)*

## WEEK 6 (06 November-10 November 1995)

Hours 1-2 : *The Present Perfect Continuous*  
Hours 3-4 : *EIU 264-265-266*  
Hours 5-6 : *QUIZ*

## WEEK 7 (13-17 November 1995)

## FIRST MIDTERM EXAM WEEK

## APPENDIX C

## ISP Syllabus

PREP SCHOOL SYLLABUS  
1996-1997 Second Semester  
Intermediate Group

Week 1 17 February-21 February	UNIT 10 "News and Views" (Hours 1-15) UNIT 11 "Stranger than Fiction" (Hours 1-4) * Grammar Sup. No.1+ other assignments from Azar ( Handed out on Feb. 17, 18, Mon. or Tue. Done by Feb. 20 Thur.) * Grammar Sup. No.2+ other assignments from Azar ( Handed out on Feb. 19, Wed. Done by Feb. 24, Mon.)
Week 2 24 Feb.-28 Feb.	UNIT 11 "Stranger than Fiction" (Hours 5-15) UNIT 12 "A dog's life" (Hours 1-8) * Grammar Sup. No 3+other assignments from Azar ( Handed out on Feb. 24, Mon. Done by Feb. 27, Thur.)
Week 3 3 March-7 March	UNIT 12 "A dog's Life" (Hours 9-13) PASS KEY UNIT 1 "First impressions" (Hours 1-14) Supp.Worksheet
Week 4 10 March-14 March	UNIT 1 (Hours 15-16) UNIT 2 "Working for a living" (Hours 1-16) Supp+Worksheet UNIT 3 "Out and about (Hour 1)
Week 5 17 March-21 March	UNIT 3 (Hours 2-16) Supp+Worksheet UNIT 4 "Crime wave" (Hours 1-4) Supp+Worksheet
Week 6 24 March-28 March	UNIT 4 "Crime wave" (Hours 5-16) UNIT 5 "Playing the game" (Hours 1-7) Supp+Worksheet
Week 7 31 March-4 April 4 April-Midterm IV	UNIT 5 "Playing the game" (Hours 8-17) UNIT 6 "Travellers' tales" (Hours 1-9) \
Week 8 7 April-11 April	UNIT 6 "Travellers' tales" (Hours 10-17) UNIT 7 "Food for thought" (Hours 1-11)

## APPENDIX D

## The Linear Format

## Contents

Introduction	i-vii	Communication practice asking for information, giving information, following directions, completing sentences Grammar What's this? It's a... — Is this a...? Yes, it is; No, it isn't; has a... and a... — above, in, on, under — and, or
UNIT ONE	2	Communication practice greetings, partings, guessing what it is Grammar What am I doing? What are you doing? What's this / that? Where's the...? — Is this / that...? am, are, is — have, has — am / are / is + -ing — I, you, he, she — adjectives of color and size — my, your, his, her — s for plural — a, an
UNIT TWO	12	Communication practice asking for information, guessing who it is, using the telephone Grammar How old is...? Where's...from? — am I, are you, is he / she — is he / she + -ing — this (to introduce people) — 's for possession
UNIT THREE	22	Communication practice giving compliments, guessing where it is, going to the post office Grammar What color is...? What's in / on the...? — Commands (you) — What a...! What a lot of...! — Is it a...? — this (to introduce objects) — it
UNIT FOUR	32	Communication practice giving information, completing sentences, asking a favor Grammar What can...? — can, can't — adjectives as complements — behind, in front of — but
UNIT FIVE	42	Communication practice giving information, decoding a message, unscrambling words Grammar What's...doing? — commands (using please) — isn't + -ing — now — out, to, with
UNIT SIX	52	Communication practice solving word problems, spelling words, receiving gifts Grammar How many can...? What are these? — These are / aren't, Are they...? Yes, they are; No, they aren't; They're... — can't you — / s / or / z / for plural — these, they
UNIT SEVEN	62	Communication practice giving information, guessing an activity, guessing where it's going Grammar Where are...? What are...doing? Where are...going? — Are these...? — so, very — into, onto, out of, all over

## APPENDIX E

## The Modular Format

The topics available for weeks 6–14 are:

Culture Shock  
 Mobility and Its Effects on Society  
 Issues in American Media (especially TV)  
 Social Change  
 Relationships and the Family  
 Crime and Punishment  
 Corporate Responsibility  
 The Future and Our Values  
 Keeping Fit

Week 1	Weeks 2–5	Weeks 6–14	Week 15
Diagnostic Week: 'Levels of Language'	Student Orientation: 'American Education'	Regular Unit Presentations: Teacher and students select from above list of topics	Final Examinations: Teacher selects from above, one which has not been used during semester.

(from American Language Institute, University of Southern California Instructor's Handbook for Intermediate Academic English: 201. 1982, by Mary Alvin and Cheryl Kraft)

## APPENDIX F

## The Cyclical Format

CONCEPTS	UNIT	PART A	PART B	PART C
SIMPLE vs. CONTINUOUS	1	'They do' vs. 'They are doing.' Position of 'often' 'never' etc.	'is/are doing' in the future 'has/have' vs. 'is/are having'	'always does' vs. 'is always doing' 'should/can/must do' vs. 'should/can/must be doing'
INDUCTION	2	'How much' vs. 'How many' 'There is/are a lot of ...' 'There is/are' vs. 'they are/it is.'	'some' vs. 'any' 'very few' vs. 'very little' 'go to church/school/prison etc.' vs. 'go to THE church/school etc.'	Use and omission of definite article with concrete and abstract nouns; words like 'news' etc. that never take 'a'.
EMPHASIS AND IMPERATIVE	3	'Going to do' 'Do!' and 'Don't do!'	'I'll do it ...' (willingness) 'I'll do it before it/when/as soon as something happens'	'Will do until' vs. 'will have done by' 'Will do' vs. 'will be doing' 'might do' and 'might be doing' in future
IMPLE, CONTINUOUS, PT AND FUTURE IN PT	4	'Walk/walked' etc. and 'Get/got' 'Did he ...?' and 'He didn't.' 'Was/were' and 'What ... like?' vs. 'How ...?' 'used to do/be/have'	'Was/were doing' vs. 'did' 'while' vs. 'during' 'during' vs. 'for'	'had done' vs. 'did' 'had no idea something was going to happen'
TENSES AND ADVERBS	5	Adjectives vs. Adverbs 'as ... as' vs. '...er than' 'better' and 'worse'	Position of 'very much' and 'very often' after object 'last and hard' 'hardly/hardly (anything) at all, 'hardly ever' 'embarrassed/embarrassing'	'look/sound' etc. with adjective 'look/feel good' vs. 'look well' 'should have done' vs. 'should have been doing'
PRESENT PERFECT	6	'did something ... ago' 'has been/had for ...' and 'has been doing for ...' 'since' vs. 'for'	'has/have been' vs. 'was/were' 'have you ever?' 'have you done that yet?' 'did it for' vs. 'has been doing it for ...' 'It's the ... est I've ever ...'	'has been doing' vs. 'has done' 'had been doing' vs. 'did' 'has been' vs. 'did'
PROBLEMS OF ORDER AND	7	'say/said' with reported speech 'tell someone something' 'could you tell me the way to ...?' 'Would you ...?' and 'May I ...?' 'tell someone to do ...' and 'ask someone to do ...' 'tell/ask/show someone how to ...'	'What are you looking at?' 'What did you do that for?' 'Who/what did ...?' 'explain something to somebody' 'want someone to do' 'doesn't/didn't want someone to do' 'mustn't vs. 'don't/doesn't have to' 'Don't you think you should ...?'	'supposed to do/be doing/have done' 'Who knows Mary?' etc. vs. 'Who does Mary know?' 'Isn't tall enough to dance with' etc.
PLUS OBJECT PLUS	8			'make someone do' vs. 'let someone do' 'get someone to do' 'will/won't be able to do' and 'will have to do'
NDS	9	have/stop/enjoy/remember doing simple revision of 'who, which', and 'that' ...	'stop/remember doing' 'stop remembering to do' 'by/for/of doing'	Verb plus Object plus Preposition plus Gerund Patterns 'stop him from doing' etc.) 'try doing' vs. 'try to do' 'difficulty in doing' etc.
TIONALS AND S OF SUGGESTION	10	'Shall I ...?' 'Shall we ...?' 'Would you like to?' 'Would you like a ...?' 'I'd like a', and 'I'd like to.'	'would/wouldn't do if I were you.' 'would do it did/didn't' 'with plus would do/were/had/did'	'It's time someone did' 'Would have done if had done.' 'wish had done.'
E REFLEXIVE AND ED CONSTRUCTIONS	11	'hurt himself' etc. (reflexives) 'wash', 'dress', 'feel'. (Non-reflexive) 'themselves/ourselves' vs. 'each other'	'has/have been done' 'have something done' 'has been done' vs. 'was done'	'Is being done' 'might/mightn't/should have been done' had (experienced) something done.'

## APPENDIX G

## The Matrix Format

**Contents**

UNIT 1:	<i>Page</i>	UNIT 10:	<i>Page</i>
Saturday	6	The Black Cat Club	88
Set 1 Identification	8	Set 1 Degrees of certainty about the future	90
Set 2 Invitations	10	Set 2 Obligation and necessity (present and future) (1)	93
Set 3 Likes and dislikes (1)	12		
UNIT 2:		UNIT 11:	
Peter	14	Putting two and two together	96
Set 1 Description: People	16	Set 1 Reporting people's statements (1)	98
Set 2 Description: Places	20	Set 2 Reporting people's statements (2)	104
UNIT 3:		UNIT 12:	
Peter went away	22	The auctioneer's story	106
Set 1 Impatience	24	Set 1 Reporting people's questions	108
Set 2 Not knowing	24	Set 2 Criticism	112
Set 3 The past (1)	26		
Set 4 Surprise and disbelief	30	UNIT 13:	
UNIT 4:		'Welcome to my little party'	114
Looking for Peter	32	Set 1 Imaginary situations	116
Set 1 Plans	34	Set 2 Obligation and necessity (present and future) (2)	119
Set 2 The past (2)	40		
UNIT 5:		UNIT 14:	
Tottenham Motors Limited	42	Peter's story	122
Set 1 Ability	44	Set 1 Obligation and necessity (past)	124
Set 2 Polite requests	45	Set 2 Reasons and consequences	126
Set 3 Telephoning	45		
Set 4 Instructions	47	UNIT 15:	
UNIT 6:		The Finale	130
Carlo's kitchen	52	Set 1 Facts	132
Set 1 Present interest in past events	54	Set 2 Speculating about the past	138
Set 2 Experiences	57	Review	142
UNIT 7:			
A girl called Linda	60		
Set 1 Recent activities	62		
Set 2 Comparison	66		
UNIT 8:			
Leave London alone	68		
Set 1 Suggestions	70		
Set 2 Opinions	73		
UNIT 9:			
On Westminster Bridge	78		
Set 1 Remembering the past	80		
Set 2 Likes and dislikes (2)	83		
Set 3 Background information	85		



## APPENDIX H

## The Story-Line Format

COMMUNICATION TASKS	chapter 1 strategies in the classroom				chapter 2 places in the community				chapter 3 services in the community				chapter 4 people in the community				chapter 5 media in the community				chapter 6 family and fun			
	asking for information																							
discussions, panels, debates	lesson 4 Unknown Identities What Am I Holding? Chain Questions Categories Body Language				lesson 10 Bumper Stickers Out-of-Town Visitors Garage Sales Campsites The Fire Station Exploring Neighborhoods				lesson 16 Do You Have the Time? Everybody Talks About It Asking for Help Postal Rates and Regulations Community Health Care				lesson 22 Get Fit Your Astrological Sign Tuning In to Children The Expressions People Use Who Calls Who What?				lesson 28 What Happened Today? A Little Bit of Talk Shows Alternative Media In the Air				lesson 34 A Family Trip Head of the Household Party Invitations My Family Tree Luxuries Teach a Child			
	lesson 5 I Can Read You Like a Book Burning Issues Newsmaker Panels To Tell the Truth The Clothes People Wear Natural Disasters				lesson 11 Favorite Cities The No-Smoking Section In-Groups and Out-Groups The Suggestion Box Talking on a Soapbox				lesson 17 Shopping Knowhow Buying on Credit From the Cradle to the Grave Bilingual Education Your Money's Worth				lesson 23 Liberated Women Married People/Divorced People Single Parents Educated People Petitioners Spoiled Brats				lesson 29 Film Fans TV Around the World What Makes You Laugh? The Sounds in the Air X-Rated Movies				lesson 35 What's a Friend? Sibling Rivalry How Do You See Your Parents? When My Kids Grow Up An Ethical Dilemma			
	lesson 6 New Looks for Old What's New? Group Stories My Friend Word Plays A Dark, Stormy Night				lesson 12 Travel Talk The Shop on Street What Would You Do If...? Tourist Traps Fantasy In Art				lesson 18 The Way of Life May I Have an Appointment If I Were the Mayor Friendly Advice Timetables				lesson 24 Who Do People Live With? A Blind Walk People Who Want to... Handicapped People Imagine that You Are Famous				lesson 30 Classified-Ad Categories Far Out Letters to the Editor Ad-Lib Scenes Quiz Kids				lesson 36 I'd Like to Be a... Earning Money Fables, Myths, and Tales Emotions I'd Rather...			

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